

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1922, No. 2

ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOLS IN THE SMALLER CITIES

By

W. S. DEFFENBAUGH



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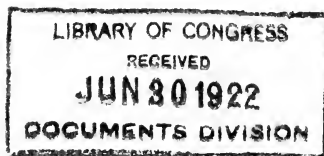
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ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOLS IN THE SMALLER CITIES.

INTRODUCTION.

The demand for Bulletin, 1915, No. 44, School Administration in the Smaller Cities, having been so great that the supply was soon exhausted, and the demand for it still being great, a new bulletin regarding the administration of schools in the smaller cities has been prepared. The information contained in it was collected by means of a questionnaire, to which about 520 superintendents in cities of from 5,000 to 30,000 population replied. The aim has been to present not only the data collected but also certain well-established principles of school administration.

THE SCHOOL BOARD.

METHOD OF CHOOSING BOARD MEMBERS.

The usual method of choosing school board members is election at large. In 417, or 80.8 per cent, of the 516 cities reporting, the board is elected by the people; and in 99, or 19.2 per cent, it is appointed by the mayor, city council, or commission. Of the 99 boards appointed, 32 are appointed by the mayor and 67 by the council or commission. Most of the States having general laws regarding the method of choosing city school boards provide for election by the people. (See p. 7.)

Students of school administration almost without exception favor an elective board, especially in the smaller cities. They say that appointment by the mayor or city council places the schools too far away from the people, and that the people take more interest in the schools if they elect the board. It is pointed out that in some cities where boards are appointed the mayor or the members of the city council control the schools to a very great degree, so that anyone seeking an appointment or a contract needs only to obtain the approval of the mayor or the members of the council. In brief, an appointive board is too often the tool of the mayor or council, many times not working for the interest of the schools but for the interest of party. If the council appoints, there is temptation on the part of its individual members to dictate policies to the school board and to influence it to elect such janitors and teachers as they may suggest. In other words, appointment by either the mayor or city council tends to entangle the schools in petty city and ward politics.

It is recognized, however, that whatever method is employed in selecting board members, objectionable political methods may be and will be used until the people really demand efficient management of their schools by their representatives. The people can demand this from either an elective or an appointive board, but they can best demand efficiency from a board they themselves elect.

SIZE OF SCHOOL BOARDS.

Comparatively few of the 516 smaller cities reporting have boards of education of more than 7 members each, as may be seen from the following:

Distribution of cities according to size of school board.

Number of board members.	Cities reporting that number.	Per cent of total.	Number of board members.	Cities reporting that number.	Per cent of total.
3.....	61	11.8	10.....	8	1.6
4.....	4	.8	11.....	3	.6
5.....	129	25.0	12.....	7	1.4
6.....	96	18.6	13.....	2	.4
7.....	151	29.2	14.....	2	.4
8.....	7	1.4	16.....	1	.2
9.....	43	8.4	18.....	1	.2

Practically all of the cities having boards of more than seven members are those governed by special law or special charter. For general State laws governing the size of city boards of education see page 7.

The small board has become so nearly general, and its efficiency compared with a large board so clearly demonstrated, that it is scarcely necessary to discuss this phase of school administration.

The following testimony of several school board members who have served on large and on small boards may, however, be interesting:

In a board of 5 members the consent of 3 is necessary to do business and is reasonably safe. With no more than 7 on the board, business can be transacted with dispatch.

About 8 years' experience as a school-board member has shown me that 5 members can do all the work and have the interest of the schools at heart. Responsibility is centralized, and men respond to it more readily.

A board with fewer than 5 members is likely to be controlled by one man. A larger one is cumbersome.

A small board increases personal responsibility of members.

In our city we had until recently a board of 22 members. Now we have a board of 9 members. I favor a board of this size from the fact that every member comes in closer contact with the actual work of the district, learns the work better, and gets to know the needs of the district, while under the old board of 22 members the work was done by a few committees, and unless a member happened to be on a committee he did not know much about what was going on, and then there was a tendency to become a drone.

In this State we have had a practical demonstration of the difference in efficiency between the large and the small board. Previous to the adoption of the new school code in this State the board in this town consisted of 12 members, but now consists of only 7 members. Formerly it was very difficult to transact business at times, there being so many different opinions to thrash out, resulting in much useless argument and prolonging meetings into the late hours of the night, thereby causing the members to feel that it was a hardship, rather than a pleasure, to attend the meetings. We now transact our business in less than half the time, very seldom being in session after 9 p. m. There seems to be a better working spirit, and as a whole I believe the small board to be a vast improvement over the large one.

All the school survey reports advocate small school boards. For instance, the Salt Lake City survey report recommends that the board of education in that city be reduced from 10 to 5 members. The reasons for the recommendation are:

A board of 5, one that could meet in a smaller room and around a single table, and with more board and less committee action, would handle the educational business more quickly, more expeditiously, and more efficiently than a board of 10 members, and with fewer conflicts with its executive officers and fewer reversals of action. A large board almost always leads to unnecessary discussion, and often has to reverse itself.

An argument sometimes advanced in favor of a large school board is that a board should be representative of the many points of view and of the different vocational and social classes. On this point the school survey report of South Bend, Ind., makes clear the absurdity of such arguments, saying:

As a matter of fact, even a large board of 12 or 15 members can personally represent but a few of the many social and vocational classes in the community. The way to take care of the many points of view is not to fill up the board with a large number of men; it is rather to choose carefully a very few men of sound judgment who know the community and the needs of the community, and whose business or other affiliations are not such as to limit their independence of judgment. These men can then at open meetings hear the claims of every interested class.

No one can say with absolute certainty that a board of 5 is more efficient than a board of 7 members, but on the whole the smaller number can well serve any of the smaller cities. In fact, some very efficient city school systems are administered by boards of only 3 members.

LENGTH OF TERM.

Of 516 cities reporting, 25 elect school-board members for a term of two years, 293 for a term of three years, 77 for a term of four years, 36 for a term of five years, 82 for a term of six years, and 3 for a term of seven years. For State laws governing the subject see page 7.

In a few cities the terms of all the board members expire at the same time. This means that a new board may come into force knowing nothing about the schools or about the policies inaugurated by former boards, which policies it may be highly desirable to retain. Under the plan of entire renewal it is too easy for a new board unwittingly and through ignorance of conditions to allow good policies to lapse which have been inaugurated only after strenuous endeavor. Furthermore, the school corps is always uncertain as to a continuation of policies already entered upon.

A long term with partial renewal usually means a settled administrative policy. A short term often fails to afford board members an opportunity to work out some necessary reform. On the whole, the length of term should be five years for boards composed of 5 members and six or seven years for boards composed of 7 members.

The school survey reports making recommendations regarding the tenure of board members would have the term of office from four to seven years, with one member retiring each year, or at least not more than two members retiring at a time.

The Leavenworth, Kans., school survey staff says in regard to the tenure of board members:

Frequent elections under the old system (2-year term) led to many short terms and consequently to a lack of the necessary continuity of service to produce high efficiency. The new method of election for four years is sure to work a helpful reform along this line.

There are two weaknesses inseparable from short terms in public service corporations. One is that the duties required are so complex that the novice may assume little responsibility and become a figurehead. The other is a far more serious danger. It is generally recognized that in a democracy like ours the

most dangerous man, whether in politics, religion, business, or the schools, is a man with convictions and no knowledge. This applies especially in reform movements, churches, and schools, where every one has pretty clearly defined feelings and convictions.

WHEN ELECTED.

School boards are elected at a special election for school-board members or at the regular city, county, or State election. Of 517 cities reporting, 178 elect board members at a special election. In some of the 178 cities holding special school elections other school matters are voted upon at the same time, such as the school budget or the issuance of school bonds.

The advantages claimed for this plan are that school-board members are more likely to be elected without regard to political parties; that the electors exercise more care in voting for a candidate at a special election than at the regular election, where city, county, and State officials are given more consideration than school officials; and that a special election fixes the attention of the people upon their schools. On the other hand, it is claimed that since only one or two school-board members are elected at a time it is poor economy to hold a special election; that only a few of the people vote at a special election; and that equally as good men may be secured if voted for at a general election, especially if they have been nominated by petition and voted for on a separate ballot without designation as to party.

It seems, however, that the schools are of such importance that a city can well afford to hold a special election once a year to elect school-board members and to vote upon such other school matters as require a vote of the people. The expense would be practically negligible if the school buildings were utilized for election purposes, especially for school elections. The argument that only a few persons vote at a special election may be passed by with the remark that the voting at least is not as perfunctory as at general elections. At least, all who do vote are interested.

QUALIFICATIONS.

The qualifications required of school-board members vary so greatly in the different States that no general statement can be made as to what the qualifications are. Among the many may be mentioned: "Taxpayer," "citizen," "not a holder of another public office," "good moral character," "patron of the school," "resident of the city for a specified time," "able to read and write."

The question is sometimes asked, What vocations should have the largest representation on boards of education? No one can say with any degree of certainty that a board should be composed of so many lawyers, ministers, physicians, bankers, grocers, and laboring men. The claim is that the different vocations should be represented so as to make the board as cosmopolitan as possible; that a board composed of men representing the different vocations will insure a better-balanced administration than a board composed almost entirely of physicians, lawyers, or bankers. In general, it is true that a board of education should not be made up almost entirely of members of any one vocation, yet this matter should be given only secondary thought.

The thought has often been expressed that there should be an educational test for board members. Some persons would have as a standard graduation from high school or college. Men and women who have been graduated from high school or college should make the best school-board members, for they should be more conversant with school conditions; but many men who have not had the advantage of high schools or colleges are most ardent sup-

porters of progressive schools, while sometimes men and women who graduated from high school or college years ago have no conception whatever of modern educational demands. Old-time college men and women on boards of education may mean a city school system completely out of touch with life. In brief, the chief qualification for school-board membership should be business sense, a desire to improve the schools, and a willingness to hand over the actual running of the schools to paid experts. Only men and women should be elected who have vision and who are willing to recognize that their function is to formulate and to adopt policies to be carried out by the superintendent and his assistants.

THE PAID BOARD.

Fortunately in none of the smaller cities is there what may be termed a salaried board of education. In some cities there is a small fee of \$50 or \$100 a year. Though no student of school administration would think of advocating a paid board, occasionally some layman takes it upon himself to advocate paying board members a salary. Only recently a former prominent board member publicly advocated that the school board in his city should be composed of three members and paid a salary so that they could devote all their time to the schools. This would have placed the management of public education in that city in the hands of laymen, whereas it belongs to experts.

Undoubtedly the feeling that boards of education should not be paid even a nominal fee is based upon the belief that the services of a higher type of citizen can ordinarily be secured if no pay is given. Even the paying of but a nominal fee attracts some persons who but for it would not be interested in the work of the board. Obviously, persons who have no more interest in the schools than this should not be permitted to become board members. Experience shows that the public-spirited citizen who has the welfare of the schools at heart will not be deterred from serving on the board of education through failure to receive a salary or fee.

TERRITORY FROM WHICH ELECTED OR APPOINTED.

Of 417 boards elected by the people, 388, or 93 per cent, are elected at large, and only 29, or 7 per cent, by wards. Of 99 boards appointed by city officials, 95 are appointed to represent the entire city. The ward system of electing school-board members has evidently almost disappeared, and will no doubt disappear entirely within the next few years.

This system was once, and still is in the cities yet having ward elections, most pernicious in its effect upon the schools. School-board members under this plan do not consider themselves responsible to the people of the city but to the people of their respective wards. "I'll get all I can for my ward" is the slogan. This is done by trading or "log rolling." The board member who can not or will not play the game gets but little for his ward as a rule. In the election of teachers, ward-board members are often permitted to nominate teachers for their own wards. Another evil of the system is that each ward must have its own school building. Practically every city that ever had the ward system now has too many school buildings, it being no unusual thing to find five or more elementary school buildings, or one to each ward in cities of not more than 10,000 population, whereas two or three buildings well located would serve the city much better; they would be less expensive to operate and at the same time would provide better school facilities.

The following are typical replies made by school-board members who have had experience both with boards of education elected at large and with those elected by wards in regard to the efficiency of the two methods:

The disadvantage of ward representation is that it frequently causes unwise expenditures in one section in order to bring about a just and needed expenditure in another.

Election at large tends to eliminate politics from administration of the school department.

We find that we get better men by election at large, and that there is not the clamor from the particular wards for special favors.

I favor election by wards. The populous and aristocratic wards would and might neglect the industrial wards where the foreigners live.

The ward system fosters the spirit of getting as much as possible for particular ward schools. The school system should be managed as a whole and not in ward units.

I am convinced that electing the school board at large in one city has allowed politics to decide who shall be the school controllers. The result has been that the very best citizens will not run, because they are not politicians enough to be elected and refuse to be defeated. To our city we have annexed new territory, making three new wards. These new wards are very thickly populated and consist of a most decidedly mixed population as to nationality, and thus far these new wards are subject to politicians. The result is that any man who seeks a position on the school board honorably or otherwise must see to it that he has enough votes to carry these three wards.

By election at large the community can keep out of the office men of inferior quality who have political pull in certain localities. Election at large also obviates undue influence brought to bear by neighbors and friends upon a member to secure special favors.

Members of school boards must be elected at large and not by wards, although efforts should be made in nominating to get men from different sections of the city. My objection to the ward system is that where two or more men are running for election in any particular ward the competition becomes quite keen in that limited territory, and the candidates are liable to make a number of promises which they may find it difficult to carry out, or in endeavoring to carry them out benefit that particular section of their town and lose sight of the interests of other sections which may be in greater need.

Good men are frequently more popular in the town than they are in their own ward.

The general opinion of those superintendents who have worked for boards elected by wards and for boards elected at large is that better board members are elected under the latter plan. They say:

Only the better class of business and professional men are now elected.

Local prejudices do not dominate. Members pull together better in interest of the whole district.

Representative citizens are elected, discarding the election of ward favorites.

Men with broader conception of the function of the school are elected.

Election at large eliminates bargaining and log rolling.

The numerous school survey reports are unanimous in declaring that election at large is superior to election by wards. For example, the staff that made a survey of the schools of Janesville, Wis., where two board members were elected at large and one member from each ward, emphatically declared that ward election is antiquated and should be abolished at the first opportunity. The staff says further:

Selection by wards can not be justified under the pretense that the interests of a given ward will be better taken care of under a system of ward representa-

tion. Ward interests see things with one eye and that only partly open. * * * The point to be considered is that the present form of organization lends itself well to ward manipulation. * * * Another condition resulting from ward selection, which is perhaps equally bad, is that which automatically prevents the selection of some of the city's most able men for membership on the board.

CITY BOARDS OF EDUCATION AS PROVIDED BY STATE LAW.

Alabama.—In towns having 2,000 or more inhabitants, 5 members; term, 5 years; appointed by the council or other governing body.

Arizona.—Members, 3; term, 3 years; elected at large.

Arkansas.—Members, 6; term, 3 years; elected at large.

Colorado.—In districts containing a school population of 1,000 or over, 5 members; term, 6 years; elected at large.

California.—Except where city boards are otherwise authorized by law, members, 3; term, 3 years; elected at large.

Delaware.—Special school districts, members, 3; term, 3 years; elected at large.

Florida.—Special school districts, members, 3; term, 2 years; elected at large.

Idaho.—Members, 6; term, 3 years; elected at large.

Illinois.—In districts having a population of not fewer than 1,000 and not more than 100,000, not governed by special act, 6 members and president, and 3 additional members for additional 10,000 inhabitants, no board to exceed 15 members.

Indiana.—Cities of 100,000 population and over, 5 members; term, 4 years; elected at large; cities, 55,000 to 63,000 population, 5 members; term, 4 years; elected at large. Cities under 50,000 population, 3 members; term, 3 years; appointed by the council.

Iowa.—In any district including all or part of a city of the first class, or a city under special charter, 7 members; term, 3 years; elected at large. Other independent city district, 5 members; term, 3 years.

Kansas.—Cities of first and second class, except those having a population of not more than 50,000 and less than 75,000, 6 members; term, 4 years; elected at large.

Kentucky.—Cities of first and second class, 5 members; term, 4 years; elected at large. Third class, 2 members from each ward; elected by voters of entire city; term, 4 years.

Louisiana.—Parish school board. Elected by voters of each police jury ward, one member for each police juror in the ward. Term, 6 years.

Massachusetts.—Town school committee, any number of persons divisible by 3 which the town has decided to elect. Term, 3 years; elected at large.

Michigan.—Cities 100,000 to 250,000 population, 9 members; elected at large; term, 3 years. Districts of third class, population, 12,000 to 75,000, 6 members; term, 6 years; elected at large.

Mississippi.—Members, 5; term, 3 years; appointed by mayor and board of aldermen.

Missouri.—Members, 6; term, 3 years; elected at large.

Montana.—Districts having a population of 8,000 or more, 7 members; term, 3 years; elected at large. Districts having a population of 1,000 or more and less than 8,000, 5 members; term, 3 years; elected at large.

Nebraska.—Members, 6; term, 3 years; elected at large. In cities having less than 40,000 inhabitants and more than 5,000 the board of education shall, at option of school district, consist of 9 members for a term of 3 years. In cities having more than 40,000 and less than 100,000 population, 6 members for a term of 6 years.

Nevada.—Districts having more than 1,500 school-census children, 5 members; elected at large; term, 4 years.

New Jersey.—In city school districts having less than 45,000 population, 5 members; appointed by mayor; term, 5 years. 45,000 or more population, 9 members; appointed by mayor; term, 3 years.

New Mexico.—Members, 5; elected at large; term, 4 years.

New York.—Members not less than 3 nor more than 9; elected by people or appointed by mayor or council; term, 5 years.

North Dakota.—In cities not organized under general law, 7 members; term, 3 years; elected at large. Cities as independent districts, 1 member from each ward; if an even number of wards, 1 member at large; if an odd number, 2 members at large; term, 3 years.

Ohio.—Cities of less than 50,000 population, not less than 3 nor more than 5 members; elected at large. Cities of 50,000 to 150,000 population, not less than 2 nor more than 7 members; elected at large; and not less than 2 nor more than 12 from subdistricts. Cities of 150,000 population or more, not less than 5 nor more than 7 members; elected at large; term, 4 years in each case.

Oklahoma.—One member from each ward and one from outlying territory; term, 4 years; elected. In independent districts not cities of the first class, 3 members; term, 4 years; elected at large. Cities having more than 50,000 population, 2 members from each ward, provided the number of wards does not exceed 5; term, 4 years; elected.

Oregon.—Districts having 1,000 or more school-census children, 5 members; term, 5 years; elected at large.

Pennsylvania.—Districts of first class, 500,000 population and over, 15 members; term, 6 years; appointed by the court. Districts of second class, 30,000 to 500,000 population, 9 members; term, 6 years; elected at large. Districts of third class, 5,000 to 30,000 population, 7 members; term, 6 years; elected at large. Districts of fourth class, under 5,000 population, 5 members; term, 6 years; elected at large.

Rhode Island.—Town school committee, members, 3; term, 3 years; elected at large.

South Dakota.—Members, 5; term, 3 years; elected at large.

Tennessee.—Not to exceed 6 members; term, 3 years; appointed by mayor and aldermen.

Texas.—Members, 7; term, 2 years; elected at large in all independent districts established after 1905. Towns and cities which choose their school boards by appointment of city council or aldermen may by vote have a school board of 7 members elected at large for a term of 2 years.

Utah.—First class, 10 members; 2 for each ward; term, 4 years; elected. Second class, 5 members; term, 5 years; elected from and by each ward.

Virginia.—Members, 3 from each ward; term, 3 years; appointed by the council.

Washington.—Cities of first and second class, 5 members; term, 3 years; elected at large. Cities of third and fourth class districts, 3 members; term, 3 years; elected at large.

Wisconsin.—In cities of first class, 15 members; term, 3 years; elected at large. In any city other than first class that has adopted general charter law, one commissioner from each ward and three from the city at large; term, 3 years; appointed by mayor and city council, or by city council if so determined by ordinance. City schools may also work under district system; 3 members; term, 3 years; elected at large. City may have by vote 7 members; term, 3 years, elected at large.

Wyoming.—Members, 3; term, 3 years; elected at large. In districts having over 1,000 population electors may increase board to 6 members for a term of 3 years.

DUTIES OF THE SCHOOL BOARD.

School boards are usually given broad powers and have similar duties. Among the powers and duties usually granted school boards are these: To appoint teachers, janitors, truant officers, and other employees, and to fix their salaries, to select textbooks and to adopt courses of study (if the law provides for local adoption of textbooks or courses of study), to purchase supplies and fuel, to keep school buildings in repair, to levy taxes or submit estimates to city council or board of estimate, to submit bond issues to a vote of the people, to erect school buildings, to prescribe duties of teachers and others, etc.

In a city school system, or even in any school system, a school board can not perform all these duties, because of a lack of time and because it is not qualified to perform all those duties requiring the service of some one of special training. It is evident that the service of some one is required in the selection of teachers, in the rating of a teacher's work, and in the selection of textbooks. To do these things the school board should employ a superintendent of schools and then hold him responsible for results.

But what is there for a board of education to do if the superintendent does all these things? The Portland (Oreg.) school survey¹ answers the question:

This leaves the board free alike from the strong personal pulls and influences and from the petty details of school administration, with time to devote to the larger problems of its work. These relate to the selection of its expert advisers, upon which much time and care should be spent; the larger problems of finance, present and future; the selection of school sites, always with future needs and growth in mind; the approval of building plans; the determination of the budget of expenses; the final decision as to proposed expansion and enlargements of the

¹ Cubberley, E. P.: *The Portland Survey*, pp. 31-32.

educational system; the prevention of unwise legislation by the city or by the legislature; and the representation of the needs and policies of the school system before the people of the city and of the State. These larger needs are far more important, but are almost sure to be neglected if a board of school directors attempts to manage too minutely the details of school administration.

In some of the smaller cities, citizens, teachers, and others take their troubles to individual members of the board with the thought that such individuals, by reason of the fact that they chance to be members of the board of education, have greater powers than other individuals in the community. The fact is, however, that an individual board member, unless authorized by the board to do certain things, has no more authority in school matters than has any other person in the city; in fact, a board member does not have as much authority as the janitor. Indeed, a board member acting as an individual has no more right to give orders to a janitor of a school building than has any other citizen.

Many a school-board member would avoid much trouble if he would refer all persons seeking this or that thing to the superintendent of schools, saying:

After the superintendent has rendered his decision, you may, if you are not satisfied with it, appeal to the board of education, but I as an individual board member can do nothing. It will require the action of the entire board.

The school board should hear no complaint until after the superintendent has passed judgment. Regarding this point the Butte (Mont.) survey committee says:

Book agents, supply agents, applicants for teachers' positions, disgruntled teacher and principals, and all others seeking favors in the school department should at once be referred to the superintendent of schools, with the simple statement that the board makes it a rule to take no action in such matters except upon his recommendation. When this is understood, the board members will be saved the waste of much valuable time and the efficiency of the educational service will be greatly improved.

Theisen, in his study² of the city superintendent and the board of education, got the judgments of students of school administration and others regarding the duties of a board of education. These duties, arranged in the order of their importance, are:

1. Select the chief executive officer and support him in the discharge of his duties.
2. Pass upon the annual budget for maintenance prepared by the chief executive and his assistants (budget including sources and amount of revenue available, as well as expenditures).
3. Debate and pass upon recommendations of chief executive for additional capital outlays—buildings, sites, improvements—and determine the means of financing such outlays; e. g., bonds, loans.
4. Advise with the chief executive, affording a group judgment, on his recommendations for extensions or readjustments of the scope of educational activities.
5. Appoint (upon nomination and recommendation of the chief executive) teachers, principals, and supervisors.
6. Determine, after consultation and discussion with the chief executive, the schedule of salaries.
7. Require and consider report of the business transacted or pending and of the financial status of the system.
8. Require and discuss report of the chief executive concerning progress of the schools, in terms of achievements of pupils, teachers, supervisors.
9. Adopt, upon consultation with the chief executive, a set of by-laws or rules for the government of the school system; i. e., designate authority of executive and administrative officers and duties to be performed by the board or its committees.

² Theisen, W. W.: *The City Superintendent and the Board of Education*. Teachers College, Columbia Univ. Contr. to Educ., No. 84, pp. 30-31.

10. Pass upon architect's plans, approved by the chief executive and his assistants, for buildings that have been authorized.
11. Represent needs of the schools before city authorities or the legislature.
12. Approve the list of bills for expenditure previously authorized and approved by executive officers.
13. Consider recommendations of executive officers on legal matters, decide steps to be taken; e. g., suits to quiet title, condemnation.
14. Approve textbooks selected by the chief executive and approve courses of study recommended by him.
15. Represent needs of the schools before the public; i. e., press, platform.
16. Serve as laymen, ready (even after retiring from the board) to champion school needs and to further public support of the schools; e. g., as others champion good streets, parks.
17. Act as a court of final appeal for teachers, supervisors, and patrons in cases which the superintendent has not been able to dispose of or which may be appealed from his decision.
18. Hear communications, written or oral, from citizens or organizations on matters of administration or policy.
19. Visit the schools, observe or investigate the efficiency of instruction.

It is not possible to discuss all these duties, but several of the most important are briefly discussed.

Selection of a superintendent.—The biggest problem now and then confronting a school board is the selection of a superintendent. The first thing to do is to decide what qualifications a superintendent should have. If a board expects to run the school itself without consulting the superintendent, it should look for a man who will quietly acquiesce, for if it does not elect such a man it may have a fight on its hands, as it should have. If, however, a board is looking for a man to run the schools, it needs a man with force of character, backed up by education and experience.

Though a college degree is not absolutely essential to the success of a superintendent, few school boards now elect men or women who have not had a college course and possibly some graduate courses.

Experience as teacher or supervisor is usually required. In cities of 5,000 or more population it is a rare occurrence for anyone to be elected as superintendent who has not had experience in some supervisory position, either as superintendent in a smaller place or as an elementary or high-school principal. In many of the smaller cities the high-school principal is promoted to the superintendency. Often this is a mistake, especially if he has never had any experience in supervising elementary schools or has not made any study of city school administration problems. A college graduate without experience but who has made a study of city school administration would, other things being equal, make a better superintendent than a high-school principal who has never been interested in problems of city school administration but only in the narrow routine of the management of high-school classes.

Having determined what educational qualifications and experience an applicant for the superintendency should possess, how may a board determine whether he has been successful and whether his character is such as to warrant his election?

Too often school boards give undue weight to letters of recommendation. All the recommendations an applicant carries with him are good. Instead of relying on recommendations written "to whom it may concern," the better plan is to have the applicant submit a list of references to whom the secretary may write or with whom members of the board may converse.

Some boards have adopted the plan of going over all the applications carefully and eliminating all but five or six of the most promising. An investigating committee, or the entire board, if a small one, visits the cities where

the applicants are supervising. Inquiries made of business and professional men usually reveal the status of the superintendent in that city. A school board employing this method visited a city and on inquiry of some of the prominent business and professional men discovered that only one or two knew anything about the schools. Several did not know the name of the superintendent, who had been in the city for seven years. This committee, being in search of a man who possessed, among other qualifications, the power to make himself felt in the community, wisely made no further inquiries.

Committees looking up the record of applicants interview the applicants' enemies as well as their friends. This is only fair to the board and usually to the applicant. A committee that was looking for a superintendent discovered that a promising applicant had some enemies. These were interviewed. One said, "The sooner you take our superintendent the better it will be for this town." The committee questioned him for a few minutes and discovered that the superintendent had refused to nominate this man's daughter for a position in the schools. Another said that the tax rate had been increased because the superintendent had introduced some new things, such as manual training, drawing, and evening schools. One of the committee, speaking of this incident, said that the superintendent's enemies gave him a better recommendation than his friends.

Dr. N. C. Schaeffer, speaking of the necessity of looking into the past and the present of an applicant for a superintendency, says:

Where a man has made no enemies it is proof that he has never taken a stand or waged a fight on any of the great moral questions of the day. And then, after consulting the man's friends and enemies, it behooves the inquirer to learn what he can from those who occupy a position of indifference. In that way you have the best criterion you can get to test the qualities of a candidate for the position of superintendent. Some mistakes have been made in the selection of superintendents. If the directors had asked not merely the friends but also the enemies and then submitted the inquiry to those taking no side for or against the candidate, they would have avoided some of the blunders we find to-day.

Many of the boards in the smaller cities are still flooded with applications when a vacancy occurs in the superintendency, since they give out the impression that the position should be sought. On the contrary, the board should seek the man.

A school board was advertising for a superintendent, and when applicants went to see the president of the board he asked them a few questions and read over their testimonials. He then told them to see the other members of the board and to file a written application with the secretary. One day an applicant introduced himself, and when asked a few questions and told to visit the other members of the board, he said:

Is this all you want to know about me? If you are not pushing your inquiries any further with the applicants, I do not wish to be considered. If you are really looking for a superintendent, I wish that you would look up my record. I shall not see any of the other members of the board until you have done this.

The president of the board, who was a keen business man, immediately saw the force of what the young man had said and at once looked up his record and the records of the other applicants. The president and the other members of that board say that if they had not examined into the records of the 50 or 60 applicants they would in all probability have made a serious blunder.

Another board in a city of 10,000 population, acting on the plan of letting the applicant seek the position, had on the day of election 60 applicants from which to choose. The board was bewildered, but they soon made up their

minds. A wily and unscrupulous politician in the city, knowing the difficulty the board would have in selecting a man from the 60 who had visited the board, advised a friend of his who wanted the position not to appear until the day of the election. A few hours before time for the board meeting the new applicant appeared. He made a favorable impression, and was unanimously elected. A few days later two of the board learned from a reliable source that the newly elected superintendent was a man of immoral character. But as he had been duly elected these two board members decided that they would not divulge this bit of information. Within two years the man was dismissed on charges of immorality. A little investigation would have saved the school board and the city from humiliation. The selection of a superintendent is a matter to which school boards can not give too serious thought.

Consideration of the annual budget.—One of the important duties of a school board is to determine the amount of funds necessary to run the schools, not only to determine the total amount but the amount needed for each item. In many instances boards and superintendents simply estimate the amount from what was expended the previous year, adding possibly 5 or 10 per cent.

The superintendents of city schools should make an estimate of the amount necessary for each item of expenditure and submit his estimate to the board for its consideration. In practice 252 of 505 superintendents reporting prepare the annual budget for the board's consideration. In 95 cities the budget is made up by the board itself, in 95 by a committee of the board, and in 66 by the secretary of the board.

Though no hard and fast rule can be made as to what per cent each item should be of the total running expenses, it is evident that an attempt should be made to preserve a proper balance, so that an item may not be out of proportion to other items.

For instance, what ratio should exist between expenditure for elementary and high schools? In cities of between 10,000 and 30,000 population the high-school cost is 2.1 times that of the elementary school. In this connection it must be remembered that if the ratio of expenditure between the elementary school and the high school is much greater than this, the conclusion does not necessarily follow that too much is being spent for the high school, but that not enough is spent on the elementary schools. Cities expending four or five times as much for high-school pupils evidently need to change the ratio by expending more for the grades.

The following shows the per cent of the current expenses devoted to each item of expenditure in all cities of between 10,000 and 30,000 population:

General control-----	4.6
Business-----	1.2
Educational-----	3.4
Instruction-----	74.8
Supervisors-----	2.7
Principals-----	6.1
Teachers-----	59.2
Textbooks and supplies-----	4.8
Operation-----	14.7
Janitors' salaries-----	6.8
Fuel, water, light, etc-----	7.9
Maintenance-----	4.9
Auxiliary agencies-----	1.8
Fixed charges-----	1.2
Total-----	100.0

In general a school system may apportion the various items in the budget as follows :

	Per cent of total.
General control -----	4 to 6
Instruction -----	70 to 80
Supervisors, including principals -----	7 to 10
Teaching alone -----	58 to 70
Janitors' salaries -----	5 to 7
Textbooks and supplies -----	4 to 6
Fuel -----	5 to 8
Maintenance -----	4 to 6
Auxiliary agencies -----	1 to 3
Fixed charges -----	1 to 2

Strayer^a recommends that "cities spending a relatively large amount per pupil should spend a relatively larger proportion for teaching and supervision and for textbooks and supplies, while the proportion spent for fuel, repairs, and janitors' salaries should increase much more slowly."

Providing buildings and playgrounds.—A board of education that refuses to delegate authority to the superintendent of schools for fear that it will have nothing to do could very profitably put in much of the time discussing the present and future building needs of the city, the number of school buildings, the type of building, and other things necessary for a good school system. Of course, the superintendent should be consulted, and his recommendations discussed as they are on other items of business.

Many boards of education, when contemplating the erection of a building, visit other cities where new buildings have been erected to get new ideas. In States where there are no definite regulations regarding the erection of school buildings, the rules and regulations of other States should be consulted, also journals that are devoted in whole or in part to the discussion of school buildings. Only an architect who makes a specialty of school buildings should be employed. One skilled in planning business houses, dwellings, churches, and the like, usually has no knowledge of the best plans for school buildings. He may plan a building good to look at, but poor from the point of service. In a certain city an architect who had designed many business buildings was employed by the school board, composed of business men for whom the architect had designed private buildings. They were sincere in their belief that he could plan an addition to the high-school building. The superintendent and high-school principal, after looking over the plans that he had prepared, protested on several points, saying that the addition would not fit in with the old part and that it would not be as serviceable as another type, but the architect's plans were adopted, on the theory that he was an expert builder, while the superintendent and high-school principal were only supervisors of instruction. As soon as the building was erected the board members saw that it was not such as an architect who understood the needs of a school would have planned.

The board must decide what type of school building is to be erected, whether it is to contain nothing but classrooms or whether it is to contain shops, a gymnasium, an auditorium, and special rooms for music, art, etc. If of this latter type, it must be decided whether the school is to be organized so as to make use of all the space all the time the school is in session. If there are nothing but classrooms, all the space can be used all the time. In such buildings there is no provision for hand work, physical training, etc. If shops, a

^a Strayer, G. D. City School Expenditures.

gymnasium, and an auditorium are provided, the building will be expensive, from the fact that some of the classrooms will be vacant when the children go to the shops, gymnasium, and auditorium.

This problem of using all the schoolroom space all the time can be solved by the adoption of the work-study-play or platoon plan. This plan grew out of a recognition of the fact that the growth of cities makes educational problems far more difficult than formerly; in fact, has created a new school problem. Briefly, the plan is this:*

A school is divided into two parts, each having the same number of classes, and each containing all the eight or nine grades. The first part, which we will call the "A School," comes to school in the morning, say, at 8.30, and goes to classrooms for academic work. While this school is in the classrooms, it obviously can not use any of the special facilities; therefore, the other school—"B School"—goes to the special activities, one-third to the auditorium, one-third to the playground, and one-third is divided among such activities as the shops, laboratories, drawing, and music studios. At the end of one of two periods—that is, when the first group of children has remained, according to the judgment of the school authorities, in school seats as long as is good for them at one time—the A School goes to the playground auditorium and other special facilities, while the B School goes to the classroom.

Under this reorganization on the work-study-play plan all the children would have not only the same amount of time for reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, and history as formerly—210 minutes—but also 50 minutes of play every day, 50 minutes a day of auditorium, and 50 minutes of shopwork every day in the week for a third of the year, science every day for a third of the year, and drawing or music every day for a third of the year.

The following table gives a possible program for the A School. It will be recalled that there are 12 classes in this A School, which are divided into 3 divisions of 4 classes each: Division 1, upper grades; division 2, intermediate grades; division 3, primary grades.

THE "A SCHOOL."

School hours.	Regular activities.	Special activities.		
	Academic instruction.	Auditorium.	Play and physical training.	Cooking, shop, science, etc.
8.30- 9.20....	Arithmetic—Divisions 1, 2, 3.....			
9.20-10.10....	Language—Divisions 1, 2, 3.....			
10.10-11.00....	Division 1.....	Division 3.....	Division 2.....
11.00-12.00....	Entire "A School" at luncheon.		
12.00- 1.00....	Reading—Divisions 1, 2, 3.....			
1.00- 1.50....	History and geography—Divisions 1, 2, 3.....			
1.50- 2.40....	Division 3.....	Division 2.....	Division 1.....
2.40- 3.30....	Division 2.....	Division 3.....	Do.

THE "B SCHOOL."

8.30- 9.20....	Division 2.....	Division 3.....	Division 1.....
9.20-10.10....	Division 3.....	Division 2.....	Do.
10.10-11.00....	Arithmetic—Divisions 1, 2, 3.....			
11.00-12.00....	Language—Divisions 1, 2, 3.....			
12.00- 1.00....	Entire "B School" at luncheon.		
1.00- 1.50....	Division 1.....	Division 3.....	Division 2.....
1.50- 2.40....	Reading—Divisions 1, 2, 3.....			
2.40- 3.30....	History and geography—Divisions 1, 2, 3.....			

The program represents a change in the traditional method in several important points. In the first place, it breaks up the custom of having all children in classrooms at the same time and letting the classrooms lie idle when

* U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1920, No. 43. Survey of the Schools of Winchester, Mass., pp. 37-38.

the children go to the auditorium, shops, and playground. In other words, it applies to the public school the principle on which all other public-service institutions are run; that is, the multiple use of all facilities all the time. For example, it is evident that our transportation system is made possible because of the fact that all people do not wish to ride at exactly the same time; concerts and theaters are made available to many people because one person can use another's seat when he does not want to use it; hotels can accommodate thousands of people because they are not run on the principle of reserving each room for the exclusive use of a single individual during the whole year. On the other hand, the public-school system has been run on the principle of reserving a seat for each child during the whole year. All children have to be in school seats from 9 to 12 a. m., and from 1 to 3 p. m.; all have to go home to lunch at the same time; and at 3 o'clock all are dismissed and turned out to play.

There would, after all, seem to be no good reason why the principle of other public-service institutions, i. e., multiple use of facilities all the time, should not apply to the school, nor any reason why all children should be in classrooms at the same time, nor why the special facilities should be used only a fraction of the day, provided, of course, that the children receive during the day the required amount of academic work. In fact, it is difficult to see how the problem of providing enough classrooms, or playgrounds, or auditoriums for the mass of children is ever to be met if all children have to be in classrooms at the same time, and if all children have to play at once. Moreover, there seems to be no good reason from an educational standpoint why children should all have to do the same thing at the same time.

Fortunately, however, if the principle of multiple use is applied to public-school facilities, it is possible to provide not only adequate classroom accommodations but also auditoriums, gymnasiums, and shops for the mass of children. In fact, accommodations may be provided in all facilities, if they are in use constantly by alternating groups, at less cost than regular classrooms alone may be provided on the basis of a reserved seat for every child. For example, in a 24-class school, under the traditional plan, 24 classrooms are needed in addition to all the other special facilities. Under the work-study-play plan only 12 classrooms are needed. The classroom, however, is the most expensive unit in the school; therefore, since only half the usual number of classrooms is needed, i. e., 12 classrooms in a 24-class school, the cost of the remainder is released for all the other special facilities.

Under the work-study-play plan, or platoon or duplicate school plan as it is sometimes called, a school building to accommodate 24 classes would cost approximately \$336,000, while a building run on the plan of leaving the classrooms, gymnasium, and auditorium vacant part of the time would cost about \$528,000. A school board should therefore study its building problem carefully to see whether it should expend \$100,000 more on a building in order to have a school organized on the traditional plan of allowing some rooms to be unused part of the day or on the work-study-play or platoon plan which uses all the rooms all the time.

As yet boards of education in the smaller cities have not given much attention to the matter of play and playgrounds. Of 520 cities reporting, only about 10 per cent have adequate school playgrounds. Some of these smaller cities, however, have municipal playgrounds, but these are often so far away from the school buildings that they can not be used in connection with school work. City playgrounds and school playgrounds should be one and the same. In a certain small city fairly well equipped with playgrounds at some distance from the school building the school children at the noon hour stand huddled in a small school yard. There are playgrounds with no children on them, while at the school house there are several hundred children with no place to play.

Another question a school board is called on to decide is, who besides children shall use the school buildings and grounds? If adults are permitted to use them, what adults? Are certain societies and organizations to be permitted to use school buildings and grounds to be refused? Many school boards, rather

than take the responsibility of making these decisions, have closed the school buildings to all but a few activities. Possibly the problem will not be solved satisfactorily until the community organizes and acts as one group. This would be the democratic way.

Issuing bonds.—One of the duties of a school board is to decide whether to ask for a bond election. The comparatively large amount of money necessary to provide a new schoolhouse and grounds when they are needed in a school district is not often available from the ordinary tax levies; hence resort must be had to some extraordinary means of supplying the requisite funds. The issue of bonds of the district is the means to which school authorities usually resort, even if this method eventually means greater expenditure. The bonds may in general be divided into two classes, those issued for the purpose of providing the school plant and those floated to refund outstanding indebtedness. Every State provides for the first mentioned, but some States do not provide for refunding older obligations with new evidences of indebtedness.

The most common method of procedure is issuance of bonds by the board of education, after securing the authority of the qualified voters expressed at an election. Usually the board may of its own accord submit the question to a vote of the people, but the provision is often added in the law that, on petition of an expressed percentage or of a fixed number of electors, the board must call an election to determine the question of a bond issue or submit the proposal at a regular election after due notice. The number of qualified petitioners necessary to secure the calling of an election varies. In Arizona it is 15 per cent; in South Carolina an election must be called on petition of one-third of the legal voters; in Texas 20 taxpaying voters may petition for and obtain an election; in Utah the school board must submit the question when petitioned by a majority of the resident taxpayers. In a few cases more than a mere majority of the school board is required; in Nebraska, for example, a two-thirds vote of the board is necessary in a city of 1,000 inhabitants or more to submit a proposal to issue bonds for the purpose of providing a site and building.

In some States the matter of issuing bonds must be passed upon by a body having power to review and approve or disapprove the acts of the school authorities who wish to make the issue. This reviewing body is generally either the legislature or some civil municipal authority. In Delaware, bonds are generally issued by authorization of the legislature, and the same is true of a few other States. In Rhode Island indebtedness may be voted by the people up to the limit of 3 per cent of the value of taxable property of the town, but beyond that amount the consent of the legislature is necessary. Indiana has several methods of procedure, varying with the size of the town or class to which the city belongs, but generally the consent of the common council or corresponding civil authority of the town or city is necessary before the school board may issue bonds.

The law of New Jersey provides that boards of education in cities shall submit an estimate of the cost of the proposed site and building to the board of school estimate, a body composed of two members of the board of education designated by that board, two members of the common council designated by the council, and the mayor or corresponding executive officer of the city. The board of school estimate is authorized to fix the amount of bonds to be issued and submit the matter to the common council, which may either make an appropriation of the amount needed or issue the bonds of the city. This provision, however, does not apply to many of the smaller cities. In most small cities and towns in New Jersey the school board submits the proposed bond issue directly to the voters of the school district without intervention of any other body.

In a few States where the county-unit system prevails, bonds for district-school purposes are issued by the county. This is true in Maryland and Louisiana, outside of Baltimore and New Orleans, respectively. It is also true in Tennessee, outside of counties having more than 190,000 inhabitants.

The number of votes necessary to carry an election on a bond issue varies in the different States, but a mere majority of the votes cast is the general rule. In California a two-thirds majority is necessary. In Nebraska, bonds may not be issued in cities of 25,000 population or more except by two-thirds of the votes cast. Washington requires a larger majority for a large percentage of indebtedness. In that State bonds amounting to $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the value of taxable property may be authorized by a mere majority of votes cast, but for a greater amount a three-fifths majority must be in favor of the issue.

The qualifications required of voters are usually the same as those required for a general election, but in a few States there are additional requirements. In Arizona, Colorado, and Utah, for example, voters on a proposed bond issue must be taxpayers of the district. The law of South Carolina provides that an election shall be called on petition of one-third of the voters and a like number of freeholders of the district.

The authority of the school board in the issuance of bonds is generally confined to such functions as the submission of the question to the qualified electors, the determination of the result of the election, and the preparation and sale of the bonds after they are authorized. In a few cases, however, the board is vested with the power to make the issue without authorization of the electorate. This is especially true of refunding outstanding indebtedness. In Idaho, Illinois, and Washington the school board is authorized to refund such indebtedness. But when this power is vested in the board it is usually granted with the proviso that new indebtedness be contracted advantageously to the district, or at least, that the new indebtedness and interest shall not exceed the old. In Pennsylvania the board of directors may contract original indebtedness, but the bonds issued therefor, together with other debts, shall not exceed in amount 2 per cent of the value of the taxable property of the district; beyond that amount and up to 7 per cent of the value of the property, bonds may be issued only by authority of the electorate.

The limit of the amount of bonded indebtedness which a district may incur is generally fixed by law, though in a few States no limit is prescribed. In these the voters determine the amount in the expression of their approval or disapproval of the proposed bond issue. Where the limit is fixed by statute it is usually expressed either as a percentage of the value of the taxable property of the district or in a stated sum. The limitation of bonded indebtedness is designed to prevent incurring exorbitant and burdensome taxation to discharge it. A limit of frequent occurrence is 5 per cent of the value of taxable property, but several States vary from this, both above and below.

Districts of the first and second classes in Colorado may reach the limit of 5 per cent, but districts of the third class may not go beyond $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Pennsylvania allows the school board to make an issue up to 2 per cent of the property valuation, but beyond that and up to 7 per cent the vote of the people determines the issue. In practically all cases where limitations are expressed in per cents, the per cent expressed is made to include outstanding indebtedness at the time of the bond issue. In Indiana a stated sum, as \$50,000, is fixed for certain districts. Texas has the provision that the total amount of bonds shall not exceed the amount which may be liquidated by a tax of 50 cents on the hundred dollars levied to pay interest and create a sinking fund. In recent years there has been a marked tendency to raise limits.

Most States provide that bonds shall not be sold below par, but a few fix a lower limit. The Missouri statute fixes 95 per cent of par value as the lowest sum for which sale may be made.

The manner of sale is treated with much detail in a number of laws. Advertisements for bids, form of issue, denominations, place of payment, and the like are generally prescribed. In a few States having large permanent school funds statutes are so framed as to promote the investment of these funds in the securities of local civil corporations desiring to float indebtedness. The Texas law requires that district-school bonds be offered to the State board of education for purchase with any uninvested residue of the State permanent school fund. North Carolina has a somewhat similar provision in the form of loans of the State "literary fund" to districts desiring to purchase sites and build schoolhouses.

The interest on bonded indebtedness is limited by law in most States. The fixed maximum varies, however, from 4 to 8 per cent. The maximum most commonly found is 5 per cent. In a few States the legal interest rate is made the highest rate permissible on school bonds. Here again there has been a tendency to raise limits since the advent of war and postwar conditions.

An item common in legal provisions relating to bond issues is the limit put on the term for which bonds may run. There is great variety in the limitations found in the laws of the several States. These vary usually from 10 to 50 years. Maximum terms in some of the States are Minnesota and Wisconsin, 15 years; Idaho, Massachusetts, Missouri, and Oregon, 20 years; Wyoming and certain districts in Indiana, 25 years; Michigan and Virginia, 30 years; California, 40 years. In a few States the time for payment is fixed by the district authorities. The purpose for which bonds are issued is sometimes made the basis of difference between terms for which they may run. In some States original bonds, floated for the purpose of providing the school plant, are allowed to run longer than refunding obligations. In Texas the character of the building to be provided with the proceeds of a bond sale is made the basis of difference. The maximum length of time allowed for payment is 40 years; but if a wooden building is to be constructed, only 20 years is allowed. The New Jersey law contains similar provisions.

Where bond issues are provided for, it is generally made mandatory upon the taxing authority of the district or other corporate unit making the issue to levy a tax to keep the interest paid and to create a sinking fund to pay off the principal when it becomes due. In some cases this tax to discharge bonded indebtedness may be levied in addition to any maximum rate fixed by law for general school purposes. Generally the law is designed to protect the investor. The faith of the district is pledged and school property is subject to levy and sale. It is specifically provided in a number of States that if the district authorities fail to levy a tax or to make the requisite estimates to cancel their bonds, some other authority, as the county commissioners, shall levy the necessary tax in the district. School bonds are exempt from taxation in some States.

The school board, or in some cases a sinking-fund commission, is usually authorized to invest the sinking fund, pending the maturity of the bonds. Precaution is taken to prevent unsafe investment. Bonds of civil corporations, deposit of the fund in approved banks, and redemption of the district's own obligations are the most common channels through which investments may be made. The law of North Dakota requires that sinking funds be deposited in the bank of North Dakota.

No doubt some cities amply able to afford bond issues could and would have better school buildings if the school board were permitted to issue bonds within certain limitations without having to refer the matter to the people, but such pro-

cedure is considered rather dangerous, since there may be extravagance on the part of the board. The tendency in some places is to borrow on the future, without much thought as to how the obligations will be met. If the people are to be held responsible for debts, they themselves should contract them. The people will usually provide funds for new buildings if they are informed as to the needs of the schools, and it is the duty of the school board to keep the people informed on school conditions and on present and future needs. In brief, students of school administration do not favor permitting a school board to issue bonds even within narrow limitations without first obtaining the consent of the people.

A school board that issues bonds without providing means for their payment when due is derelict in its duty. Instances are on record where school boards did not provide a sinking fund to meet the bonds as they matured. One of the best methods of issuing bonds is to issue them so that they mature serially; that is, a certain portion of the bond, as one-twentieth of a 20-year bond, maturing each year.

RELATION OF SCHOOL BOARD TO CITY OFFICIALS.

Of 520 cities reporting, the board of education in 126 of these must refer their estimates to the city council or town finance committee, in 30 to a board of estimate, in 15 to the people, and in 51 to the county officials, thus leaving 298 of 520 boards of education free to make up their own estimates without referring them to any other body for approval.

Whether a school board should be compelled to depend upon the city council for appropriations has been a debated question. The claim of those in favor of having the school board submit estimates to the city council for approval is that there should not be two bodies in the city having power to levy taxes, since the two may make the combined taxes for school and city purposes too high; that everything should be spent in the light of all the needs of the city; that there is too much scattering of responsibility; that the affairs of a city should be conducted on business principles as in a private corporation, thus making it inadvisable to divide the responsibility of the taxing power; and that it would be just as logical to have the board of health or the police department independent of the city council.

Those who advocate the divorcement of school and city affairs claim that the school issue is sufficiently large and different from the issues of general municipal government to make it desirable for the school to have separate attention from the people; that education is a State and not a municipal function, the State, for the purpose of maintaining and administering a system of public education, having found it expedient to create school districts whose boundaries may or may not be coterminous with those of the city. This view that education is a State and not a municipal function is held by the courts. The following court decisions are typical:

The schools in which are located and trained the children who are to become the rulers of the Commonwealth are matters of State and not local jurisdiction.—(122 Ind. 642.)

School districts are not strictly municipal corporations but territorial divisions for the purpose of common schools, exercising within a prescribed sphere many of the faculties of a corporation.—(42 Pa. 358.)

The settled policy of the State from an early date has been to divorce the business of public education from all other municipal interests or business and to take charge of it as a peculiar and separate function through agencies of its own selection and immediately subject and responsive to its own control.—(176 N. Y. 11.)

According to the American and English Encyclopædia of Law,⁵ school districts are political subdivisions within the State, created for the purpose of maintaining and administering the system of public education. They are not bodies politic or corporate with the general powers of corporation, but may be considered as quasi corporations, variable in organization and extent, and having corporate existence by force only of their public functions, and therefore the strict principles of the law respecting corporations generally can not in all cases be applied to these aggregate bodies, created usually by statute. Although a school district possesses corporate capacity, it does not, as a general rule, fall within the definition of a municipal corporation.

The fact having been established that education is a State and not a municipal function, it is being recognized more and more throughout the country that the efficient administration of city schools demands that boards of education be given full control over the educational, business, and financial affairs of the school system, that the city boards of education should be entirely independent of all other branches of city government.

Practically all students of city school administration advocate the complete divorcement of the schools from municipal control. Dr. E. P. Cubberley, professor of education, Leland Stanford Junior University, says:⁶

The experience of our American cities indicates clearly the desirability of removing the tax-determining power for the schools from the control of the city council and of placing it, within certain legal limits to be fixed by the legislature, with the school authorities for determination. If within the legal limits, the rate decided upon should not be subject to review by any city authority. The results have been uniformly good in those cities where such power has been transferred to the school authorities, and the schools of such cities have, in general, been able to make better progress than in those cities where the school department still remains a branch of the city government. The rates frequently are higher than under council control, as they usually should be, but they are not higher than the needs of the schools would indicate as desirable or the wealth of the people would indicate as reasonable. Of all money expended by any department of a municipality, that expended for schools is probably the most honestly and most intelligently expended.

Dr. E. C. Moore, when professor of education in Harvard University, said:⁷

The city government exists not to do everything that must be done, but to perform those functions only which are peculiar to itself and can not be performed by any other agency so well as by its own corporate officials. Conducting the courts is one function which it can not perform so well as the State can, making general laws is another, and conducting the public schools is a third. To intrust all these responsibilities to one body of city officials would create a disposition which would be as harmful to the citizens themselves as to their neighbors who dwell outside their limits, but whose interests in these things are in common with theirs. Effective government must be a system of checks and balances and the vesting of one body of officials with more responsibility. * * *

If it is said that all the tax levied in one locality should be levied by one local taxing body, in this case by the municipal authorities, this, too, is not sound. Taxes are levied, and must be levied as long as governments within governments exist, by each government for its own purposes. The complete unification of taxation in the hands of one local body of officials would require the complete withdrawal of the municipality from the State and the Nation. The right to tax belongs not to the city but to the State, and to the city only as delegated to it by the State. The needed unification of taxation and security against unjust taxation must be had from the legislature. For, as Chief Justice Marshall has said, "The interest, wisdom, and justice of the representative body and its relation to its constituents furnish the only security where there is no express contract against unjust and excessive taxation, as well as against unwise legislation generally."

⁵ Vol. 25, p. 31.

⁶ Cubberley, E. P. *Public School Administration*. Houghton, Mifflin Co., pp. 412-13.

⁷ *Amer. Sch. Bd. Jour.*, May, 1913, p. 14.

No principle of either law or sound taxation is violated in those States in which the legislatures delegate to boards of education the duty of determining the amount of money required for public-school purposes and then of levying it. Such an arrangement is made in order to give effect to the State law, which safeguards public education by making it a State function and so removing it, as the court has said, from the mismanagement and the taint of local municipal politics, and such an arrangement is necessary if it is to be in fact as well as in theory set free from bondage by local maladministration. The school system which must go to the city hall for its appropriations of money to run the schools will inevitably find its schools conducted by the city hall, even though the laws expressly state that the control and administration of all school affairs is vested in a board of education, which is a State body created and empowered to conduct the schools and to keep their interests separate from all other municipal interests and business. Such a scheme of school administration defeats the very purpose for which it was created, for the separation of conflicting interests is not complete enough to be the real separation which is desired, and city hall officials, like love, may be depended upon to find a way to subvert it.

The right to levy a tax for school purposes is delegated to the local officers by the State. The whole question is, Will the State serve its schools and the people better by delegating this responsibility to the city hall officials or to the board of education? As to the right answer there can be no question.

When Dr. Thomas E. Finegan, now State superintendent of public instruction in Pennsylvania, was assistant commissioner of education of the State of New York, he said in regard to the practice of utilizing city officials in the administration of the city schools: *

The policy of utilizing city officials in the administration of the work of the schools and of conferring upon them the power to determine appropriations and control budgets has given to the common council, the board of estimate and apportionment, or other similar bodies in many of the cities of the country greater influence over the management and control of the schools than have the board of education and the superintendent of schools. In many cases city officials not legally associated with the schools and in no way responsible for their management have usurped the functions of the legally chosen school officers. This plan means a division of responsibility in school administration which results in a delay in providing necessary school buildings and other improvements, and is to the distinct detriment of the children's interests. The authority exerted through this source has often resulted in influential citizens and political organizations exercising the power of appointing teachers, of increasing the salaries of those in whom they were interested without reference to their fitness or worth, and of exercising other functions in the administration of the schools which the generally accepted policy of school management required school officers to perform. This is one of the weakest points in our public-school system. The leaders of educational thought in this country should strike a decisive blow at this evil, should lead in the fight for complete freedom of the schools, for the complete independence of those legally charged with their management, and for the universal recognition of the principle that the schools are institutions dedicated to the service of the people, and that no power or influence shall be permitted to impair their usefulness or efficiency.

Of the 222 superintendents reporting in cities where the board of education must refer its estimates to some other body, 94 advocate a board of education entirely independent of any other body.

Last year the budget estimates were reduced in 72 of the 222 cities in which the school board must consult some other body regarding the amount of school funds. In 47 of these the reduction was made by the city council, in 11 by the board of estimate, and in 14 by the county officials. In none of the cities where the estimates are referred directly to the people was there any reduction of the amount requested.

It is evident that where boards of education levy their own taxes the schools need not be handicapped for want of funds, provided, of course, that the maxi-

* Nat. Ed. Assoc. Rep., 1913, p. 126.

imum rate permitted by law is sufficiently high to cover all cases. The claim that two taxing bodies in the same city make taxes unduly high has seldom been justified in fact, and even in these cases the high tax rate was not due to the schools but to some city department. If a board of education is required to submit an estimate to the city council or some other body, often entirely ignorant of school conditions, it may be hampered for want of funds. It at least can not plan far ahead.

This is the case in several States where the school board must look to another body for its funds. The school survey commission of the State of Alabama says, in regard to the city school situation in that State:*

There is absolutely not one dollar which the city board of education may count upon as available for running its schools without first appealing to some other official body. The city school board receives from State and county school funds only such amount as the county boards see fit or deem wise to give. Before they can use the general city fund they must ask for and obtain it from the city commissioners. The special city school tax can not be levied unless the county has already taxed itself 3 mills for school purposes, and not in excess of the rate levied by the county. Even then the county board of revenue must be asked to call this election.

This situation makes it absolutely impossible for a city school board to conduct its affairs in a really systematic or businesslike way. No individual can properly plan his expenditures or business firm operate its business intelligently without some idea of its probable revenues. The only way in which it is possible to conduct a business successfully is to have a budget available for expenditure and then to expend it in the best and most systematic manner possible. One can not plan any expenditure intelligently without having at least some idea as to his income; yet this is exactly what city school boards in Alabama, under present conditions, are required to undertake.

All those favoring a board of education independent of the city council would establish a rate of taxation which a school board may not exceed, but they would make it sufficiently high so that those cities in which property is assessed at only one-fourth of its value may have sufficient funds for school purposes. The maximum rate should be at least 20 mills or \$2 on the \$100. This may seem high, which it is if property is assessed at full value, but in some cities property is assessed at about one-fourth its value; so the rate would be only 5 mills, or 50 cents on the \$100 of real value.

A few students of municipal government have predicted that under the commission form of government the schools will be administered by the commission instead of by a board of education. Thus far there has been no decided movement in this direction. There are a few scattered instances of the control of the schools by the city commission, but the results have not been outstanding enough to convince anyone that this method of administration is an improvement. The plan thus far proving most efficient is that of having a board of education independent of city official domination.

BOARD MEETINGS.

Most school boards in the smaller cities have one regular meeting each month, which is often enough for the transaction of ordinary business. There are some school boards, however, that have no regular time for meeting* and, as a consequence meet rather infrequently and not often enough to keep informed in regard to the progress and needs of the schools. There should be a stated time for meeting each month, as the first Monday at 7 p. m., or some other definite time convenient for all board members.

* U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1919, No. 41, An Educational Study of Alabama, p. 250.

At certain times, as when plans for the erection of buildings or other things of special importance requiring immediate attention are being considered, it is necessary for a board to meet oftener than once a month.

As a rule school-board meetings may be attended by any citizen or by representatives of the press. Closed sessions do not meet with much favor. There may be times, however, when all discussion regarding certain matters should be in executive session. If, for instance, cases of discipline of pupils reach the board, the discussion should not be made public, but only the final action. If the board wishes to discuss with the superintendent the advisability of not re-employing a teacher, it is only fair to the teacher that what is said about her work should not be said in public.

In some cities tardiness and irregular attendance of board members often handicap the work of the school board. Tardiness of several members may prevent a board from beginning business until a half hour after the time set for meeting. Board members who are irregular in attendance miss important items of business and lose interest in the affairs of the board. When a board is criticized for certain legislation a board member can not well hide behind the excuse that he was not present, though this excuse is sometimes offered. Indeed, some board members absent themselves when they do not wish to go on record as voting for or against a measure. Such officials are not interested in the schools and are only making use of them for personal or political purposes.

ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOL BOARD.

Most school board organizations consist of several standing committees and the officers, president, secretary, and treasurer.

The president.—The successful working of a school board depends to a very great extent upon its president, who should be a man or a woman capable of presiding over a deliberative body. In those cities where the school board conducts its business with dispatch the president knows and applies the ordinary rules of parliamentary procedure. Many boards waste time because the president fails to enforce even the simplest of parliamentary rules, permitting members to speak at any time and upon subjects not before the board. An order of business should be adopted, from which there should be no deviation except for good reason.

The president of the board is in most cases elected by the board itself. In some cities the president is elected by the people. Too often the president of the board of education is considered having functions that he does not have. Not infrequently teachers, parents, and others appeal to the board president, who legally has no more right to make decisions than any other member. His chief function is to preside at board meetings and to sign such papers as he may be authorized to sign. It is too true, however, that some presidents of school boards attempt to run the schools by virtue of being president of the board. Some board presidents even encourage visits from teachers and parents with grievances which he himself attempts to settle. Recently the writer was in the office of a superintendent who was discussing a matter with a parent. Just then the president of the board came in, and after listening for a moment to the conversation between the superintendent and parent, he began to talk, and soon the superintendent dropped out of the conversation, letting the president of the board settle the question at issue. No doubt the superintendent was weak, but it was the theory in that city that the president of the board was the most important man in the school system, so that there was nothing for the superintendent to do but let the president of the board settle the matter. The sooner boards of education and the public in general recognize the fact

that the school board president is not an executive officer of the board, that he is simply a presiding officer with no more authority than any other board member, the sooner will there be fewer tangles in school administration.

Indeed, the question may be asked whether it is necessary to elect a member of the school board president? If not, who could be made president of the board? Thiesen¹⁰ asks, why not have the superintendent of schools, who is the chief executive officer employed to execute the policies of the board, perform the duties usually assigned a president? This may seem radical, but in business corporations the chief executive officer is often the president of the board of directors. Thiesen says that in his study of the city superintendent and the board of education he found nothing that would suggest that an organization whereby the superintendent as chief executive could not fill the position of president of the board of education, in addition to his ordinary duties. If such an arrangement is feasible, the superintendent of schools would act merely as presiding officer and with power to sign such papers as the board might authorize. He should, however, have no vote.

Whether such plan is feasible in school administration will have to be proved by trial in a few cities. The purpose here is merely to call attention to what may be possible in the organization of boards of education.

Secretary or clerk.—In 256, or 49.6 per cent, of 516 cities reporting, the secretary or clerk of the school board is a member of the board, while in 105 cities the superintendent of schools serves as secretary, in 44 the superintendent's clerk, and in 111 some person not connected with the school system. The tendency seems to be to employ as secretary some one not a member of the board. Though the data are not entirely comparable, information collected in 1915 shows that in 62.5 per cent of the school boards in 1,277 cities reporting at that time the secretary of the board was a member of the board, while in 1921 in only 49.6 per cent of the school boards in the 516 cities reporting is the secretary a member of the board. In 1915 the superintendent of schools was secretary in 9.3 per cent of the cities reporting, and in 1921 in 20.4; in 1915 so few places reported that the superintendent's clerk was secretary of the board that the number was added to that of outside persons, making 28.1 per cent of outside persons employed as secretary.

Some school boards in the smaller cities, especially in those of 10,000 or more population, realizing the vast amount of work there is for a school board secretary, employ some one to give all his time to the work, which he can do with profit to the school system. His duties consist not merely of recording transactions, but of acting as business agent working under the direction of the superintendent. Where this plan is in operation, one person, the superintendent, is held responsible for carrying out the orders of the board relating to business matters, instead of a half dozen committees. In several cities of about 25,000 population a great saving has been effected by establishing a business office, with the secretary of the board in charge. Under this plan the board must have all business matters pass through the secretary's office, no matter how insignificant. If there is no business director, a committee or even a board member may order such supplies as are thought necessary without any consideration of what funds are available or whether the material is purchased at the lowest price possible.

The president of one school board says that before adopting the plan of employing a full-time secretary as business manager a school board member would order what he pleased, with the result that the bills exceeded the funds; now no one is permitted to order anything except through the secretary's office.

¹⁰ Thiesen, "The city superintendent and the board of education."

In most of the smaller cities, especially in those of less than 15,000 population, the superintendent's clerk could well be made the secretary of the board if the superintendent is provided with a clerk as he should be. If he is not, a slight addition to the salary paid the secretary of the board would employ a capable young woman to act as secretary for both the superintendent and the board. Most superintendents, where this plan has been tried, pronounce it much better than that of having a member of the board as secretary. The following is a typical reply to the question, "What is the advantage of making the superintendent's clerk the secretary of the school board?"

The superintendent becomes the executive head of the school system in the full sense of the word, both in respect to professional and business matters. In fact, he really becomes a sort of general manager with a threefold function—supervisor of instruction, inspector, and business manager. Under proper conditions, this in nowise interferes with the prerogatives of the school board, but it does eliminate the assumed prerogatives of individual members of the board. The superintendent must get his authority from the board as a whole or from committees to whom definite duties are assigned.

Instead of our secretary being a school-board member whose private duties make it necessary for him to consider his secretaryship a side issue, we employ a man who gives all of his attention to our business. As a consequence the business phase of the administration of the schools is "up to the minute," and professional matters are not sidetracked on account of the slowness of the department.

Because of better organization and closer correlation between the business and professional departments, we are able to keep a cost system the advantage of which it would be difficult to overestimate.

The present arrangement results in an actual financial gain to the school district. The salary of one school secretary is less than the combined salaries formerly paid to the superintendent's clerk and the school-board secretary. In addition to this, money is saved because of more efficient management of material and financial affairs.

Another superintendent, replying to the same question, says:

I think that the advantages of making the superintendent's secretary the school board's secretary are many. It places the responsibility for all the work officially. It lessens red tape materially in that anything that demands immediate attention of the secretary of the board may now be had, while under the plan of having a member of the board serve as secretary for the board it was often necessary to go to the secretary's home for much necessary data. One advantage is that all records, minutes, expenditures, cashbooks, check books, etc., are now in the superintendent's office, where they may be had at a moment's notice. Board members now have a better insight into the books and workings of the board, since they do not hesitate to examine the books when left in the superintendent's office as public property.

Among the different duties generally assigned to the secretary are that he shall be custodian of records and all written documents belonging to the school district; that he shall keep a correct account with the tax collector or city council, give a statement of tax accounts and of finances of school district at each regular board meeting; make an annual report of business transactions to the city council or town meeting, or to the public through the press; prepare and forward the annual report of the district to the State superintendent of public instruction; prepare and sign orders on the treasurer for payment of bills approved by the board; pay the teachers their salaries; have general supervision of all business matters; attest in writing the execution of all deeds, etc., that must be executed by the board; take inventory annually of all school property; act as custodian of supplies, keep records of proceedings, and keep financial accounts.

The treasurer.—In only a few cities is the treasurer a member of the school board. In many instances, especially in those cities where the school funds are

appropriated from the city funds, there is no school treasurer, the city treasurer being custodian of all the city funds. In cities where the school board is independent of the city officials the boards often select some bank or trust company as treasurer, which is much better than the plan of electing some individual board member.

Committees.—Though the tendency is toward fewer committees, many boards of education are still overburdened with useless committees. Sometimes there are as many as there are board members, each member holding a chairmanship. The following table gives the number of school boards having committees of various sizes:

Number of school boards.	Number of standing committees.	Per cent.	Number of school boards.	Number of standing committees.	Per cent.
145	0	28.1	29	7	5.6
10	1	1.9	10	8	1.9
24	2	4.6	12	9	2.3
65	3	12.6	1	10	.2
64	4	12.5	1	11	.2
86	5	16.6	1	14	.2
69	6	13.3			

Among the many different committees reported are: Finance, buildings, teachers, auditing, visiting, textbooks and supplies, complaints, janitor, sanitation, promotion, manual training, high school, discipline, athletics, medical inspection, vocational education, courses of study. Clearly the functions of most of these committees, as those on promotion, manual training, courses of study, and discipline, duplicate the function of the superintendent, principals, or teachers.

In general a board of education needs no committees. If the superintendent is given the power he should have in the preparation of the school budget, in the selection of teachers, in the selection of textbooks, in the preparation of courses of study, in the promotion of pupils, and in other business and professional matters he does not need the assistance of a committee. He should formulate his recommendations and present them to the school board for approval or rejection, since it can discuss and pass upon the recommendation of the superintendent as well as can a committee of three, the usual size of standing committees. When the work is done by committees there is usually but little discussion by the entire board; some of the members may be almost entirely ignorant of what the others are doing. Each member should give his serious attention to every recommendation presented for consideration. This is not the case in most cities where work is parceled out to committees. Often a committee is nothing but the mouthpiece of the president of the board who appoints it.

Practically every school survey that treats of the committee system, and every study of city school administration, points out the need of few, or even of no, standing committees, and recommends that where there are committees the board as a whole study and discuss the reports of the committees. For example, the Janesville, Wis., school survey staff says:

With a small board there is little need of standing committees. The present board is to be commended for having reduced the number of these. Too often committees undertake work which should be left to the professional judgment of those whom the board employs to manage its school system.

Dr. Frank W. Ballou, superintendent of schools, Washington, D. C., after an investigation in 72 cities concluded as follows regarding committees: "

The few members of a standing committee play altogether too large a part in the decisions of the board, as shown by the fact that (1) more than 80 per cent of the committees are minority committees, and (2) the reports of committees, whether large or small, through necessity are seldom discussed by the whole board.

The committee organization permits the exercise of pernicious influences, because (1) of the prevailing method of appointment of members by the president of the board because (2) of its closed meetings and because (3) it is easier to deal unscrupulously with a small committee than it is with a whole board.

The committee system violates four principles of effective administration, as follows: (1) The duties of each committee can not be clearly defined, because the functions of committees overlap, due to the fact that committees are usually organized according to no known principle of organization. (2) This makes it impossible to fix the responsibility of each committee, because no one knows just what its duties are. (3) The absence of any well-defined responsibilities makes it impossible to hold the committee responsible for its acts. (4) The committee system tends to confuse lay control with professional and executive management, because the prevailing practice is to refer the discharge of executive functions to committees of the board rather than to the board's professional executives. For these reasons the practice of boards of education of organizing into standing committees for the transaction of their business must be condemned.

If there are committees they should present facts for the consideration of the entire board, but in only 120 of the 371 cities whose boards of education have committee organization are facts only presented; in 138 specific recommendations are made; and in 113 others sometimes facts and sometimes specific recommendations are made. In 300 cities the committees are sometimes given power to act. This should never be. Committees should not pass upon matters to be later rubber stamped by the board; neither should any committee attempt to carry out policies. The executive officer of the school board should do this himself or delegate some one of his assistants to do so. The superintendent of schools should attend all committee meetings, but 209 of the 516 superintendents reporting do not.

THE SUPERINTENDENT.

The most important office is that of superintendent of schools. If a good superintendent is elected, and if the board delegates to him the management of the schools, there should be but little cause for complaint from those who believe that the schools should be managed in the interests of the children. The position is important because the superintendent is the officer who carries out the wishes of the board; he not only carries out their wishes but submits plans for the management of the schools for the board's consideration.

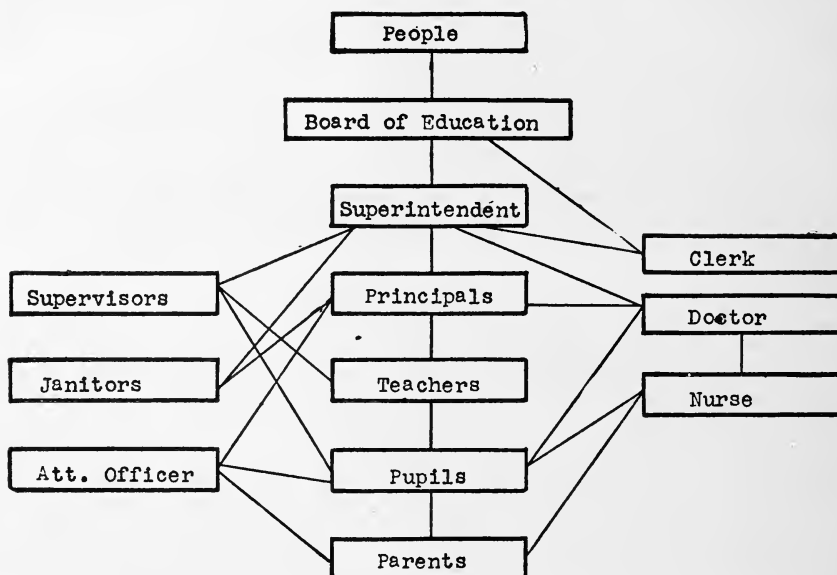
RELATIONS.

The relation of a school board to its superintendent does not differ materially from the relation that a board of bank directors sustains to the cashier or the president of a bank, or that a board of directors of any private corporation sustains to the superintendent it employs. The stockholders in a private corporation elect a board of directors to look after their interests in the conduct of the enterprise. These directors know but little about the technical details of the business they are empowered to administer. Few, if any, could do the work of one of the clerks or mechanics, much less supervise it; so they employ a

¹¹ The Appointment of Teachers in Cities, pp. 121-2.

superintendent to do this and hold him responsible for results. If he can not conduct the business so as to declare dividends, he must show why he can not.

The superintendent being the executive officer of the board all supervisors, principals, teachers, and others should report to the board through the superintendent, also through the proper administrative channels so that there may be no "crossing of wires." The superintendent should not ignore the supervisors or principals when he gives instructions to the teachers, but should communicate with them through the supervisors or principals. The proper relations in a small city school system may be graphically represented as follows:



The people elect school-board members to serve their interests, but the average school-board member, like the average member of a board of directors of a private corporation, knows nothing of the technical aspect of the work; yet it sometimes happens that school boards or individual members of the board attempt to do the things they are paying the superintendent to do.

In the business world many cases of failure are due largely to the fact that the board of managers attempts to dictate in regard to matters of which it is entirely ignorant. Corporations have failed because the board of directors made its superintendent a figurehead. In brief, no board of directors, whether of a public or a private corporation, should attempt to do the work it is paying an expert to do.

POWERS AND DUTIES.

The powers and duties of city school superintendents should be similar to those of the superintendent employed by the directors of a private corporation, but often he is considered merely a teacher, this idea having arisen when the superintendent was nothing more than a head teacher to look after discipline and other details around the school buildings. This idea still prevails in some few of the smaller cities, but the superintendent's powers and responsibilities have been and are being much enlarged by school boards themselves, and by State laws regarding the duties of school superintendents, though the laws

are usually inadequate. The following is a summary of the powers and duties as prescribed by the general laws of the States that define the powers and duties of the city school superintendent:

Alabama.—The city superintendent of schools shall be the chief executive officer of the city board of education, and shall see that the laws relating to the schools and the rules and regulations of the city board of education are carried into effect.

The city superintendent of schools shall explain the true intent and meaning of the school laws, and of the rules and regulations of the city boards of education, and of the State board of education subject to the provisions of this act. He shall decide, without expense to the parties concerned, all controversies and disputes involving the rules and regulations of the city board of education, and the proper administration of the public schools. He shall have authority to administer oaths and to examine under oath witnesses in any matter pertaining to the public schools of the city, and to cause the examination to be reduced to writing. Any person who having been sworn or affirmed by him to tell the truth, and who willfully gives false testimony, shall be guilty of perjury and shall be punished accordingly.

The city superintendent of schools, subject to the provisions of this act, shall recommend for approval and adoption by the city board of education the kind, grade, and location of schools to be established and maintained.

The city superintendent of schools, subject to the provisions of this act, shall recommend for approval and adoption by the city board of education policies adopted to promote the educational interests of the city and rules and regulations for the conduct of the schools.

The city superintendent of schools shall nominate all employees of the board, and all persons so nominated for teaching or supervising positions shall hold certificates issued by the State board of education.

The city superintendent of schools, subject to the regulations from time to time of the city board of education and in accordance with the provisions of this act, shall outline a building program adequate to meet the needs of the schools in the city, and shall submit the same for approval and adoption by the city board of education.

The city superintendent of schools shall recommend to the city board of education for condemnation school buildings which are insanitary and unfit for use. He shall recommend all repairs, purchase of playgrounds, school grounds, school sites, and buildings, or the sale of the same, and shall prepare, or cause to be prepared, all plans and specifications for the remodeling of old buildings and the construction of new buildings. He shall recommend in his discretion to the board of education an architect or architects to assist in the preparation of plans and specifications for remodeling old buildings, for the construction of new buildings, and shall supervise such remodeling and construction. He shall approve in writing all contracts of whatever kind entered into by the city board of education.

The city superintendent of schools, subject to the provisions of this act, shall prepare rules and regulations for grading and standardizing the public schools, and shall recommend the same for approval by the city board of education.

The city superintendent of schools, subject to the provisions of this act, shall prepare courses of study for the schools of the city, and shall submit the same for approval and adoption by the city board of education. Printed copies of the courses of study shall be supplied every teacher and every interested citizen of the city or town. The city superintendent of schools shall nominate in writing for appointment by the city board of education, all principals, teachers, supervisors, attendance officers, janitors, and all other regular employees of the board, and shall assign to them their positions, transfer them as the needs of the schools require, recommend them for promotion, suspend them for cause, and recommend them for dismissal.

The city superintendent of schools, subject to the provisions of this act, shall organize institutes for teachers and for citizens. He shall organize and direct the reading circle work, advise teachers as to further study and professional reading, and assist parents and teachers in acquiring knowledge of the aims and work of the schools.

The city superintendent of schools shall visit the schools, observe the management and instruction, and give suggestions for the improvement of the same. He shall advise with principals and teachers, and shall endeavor in every way to promote public interest and improve educational conditions.

The city superintendent of schools, subject to the provisions of this act, shall prepare forms and blanks upon which principals, teachers, supervisors, attendance officers, janitors, and other regular employees shall make such reports as shall be required and shall submit the same for approval to the city board of education.

The city superintendent of schools, subject to the provisions of this act, shall prepare the annual school budget provided for in article 8 of this act, and shall submit the same for approval and adoption by the city board of education. He shall in every way seek to secure adequate funds for the support and development of the schools.

The city superintendent of schools shall direct the taking of the biennial census provided for in article 8 of this act. He shall cause the census to be retaken in whole or in part when directed to do so by the State superintendent of education. The city superintendent of schools shall require the enumerators to make their report to him not later than August 10, following the date of taking the census, and on or before the 15th day of August following the city superintendent of schools shall make his report of such census to the county superintendent of education. He shall retain a duplicate of the same for the files in his own office.

The city superintendent of schools shall recommend the employment of one or more attendance officers, subject to the provisions of this act, and the rules of the city board of education, and shall see to it that the provisions for school attendance set out in article 15 of this act are enforced.

The city superintendent of schools shall prepare, or cause to be prepared, and submit to the city board of education for adoption all reports required by the State board of education, and he shall prepare, or cause to be prepared, and submit to the city board of education a school report as provided in article 8 of this act.

The city superintendent of schools, acting under the rules and regulations of the city board of education, shall be responsible for the administration of the office of superintendent of schools, and he shall see that all regular appointees of the city board of education devote their entire time to their duties.

The city superintendent of schools shall perform such other duties as are assigned to him elsewhere in this chapter or may be assigned to him in accordance with law.

California.—The superintendent of schools in every city school district governed by a city board of education and employing 70 or more teachers must hold at least one teachers' institute in each year. He shall have authority to issue work permits.

Idaho.—The superintendent shall be the executive officer of the board, with such powers and duties as they may prescribe, together with such powers and duties as are now or may hereafter be prescribed by the laws of the State.

Indiana.—It shall be the duty of the city, town, and county superintendents to visit each year the teachers under their charge and supervision, and from personal inspection and otherwise make an itemized statement and grading of the success of each teacher under their charge.

The superintendent shall have the power to appoint and discharge all principals, supervisors, assistants, and teachers authorized by the board subject to the limitations in this act stated and shall report to the board annually and oftener if required as to all matters under his supervision: *Provided*, That the board of school commissioners shall approve of the appointment of assistants, principals, supervisors, and teachers unless four of such members disapprove of the same. He may be required by the board to attend any or all of its meetings and may take part in the deliberations but shall not vote. He shall select and report to the board all charts, maps, textbooks, and apparatus to be used in the schools of said city except the high schools, normal, and manual training schools, conforming, however, so far as may be to the provisions of the general law of the State of Indiana governing schoolbooks. In like manner he shall report to the board all textbooks, maps, charts, and apparatus to be used in the high schools, normal, and manual training schools, which charts, maps, textbooks, and apparatus shall have first been selected by a committee consisting of said superintendent of schools, the principal of the high schools, the principal of the normal school, the principal of the manual training school, and the head of each department in which such maps, charts, textbooks, or apparatus is to be used.

Kansas.—In cities of the first and second class, the superintendent shall have charge and control of the public schools of the city, subject to the orders,

rules, regulations, and by-laws of the board. He shall be chairman of the examining committee.

Kentucky.—In cities of the first and second class the board of education may, on the nomination of the superintendent of schools, appoint as many assistant superintendents as it may deem necessary, whose compensation shall be fixed by the board, and who may be removed by the superintendent with the approval of the board. The superintendent of schools shall qualify by taking the oath prescribed by law. He shall have general supervision, subject to the control of the board, of the course of instruction, discipline, and conduct of the schools, textbooks, and studies; and all appointments, promotions, and transfers of teachers and truant officers, and introduction and change of textbooks and apparatus shall be made only upon the recommendation of the superintendent and the approval of the board. The superintendent shall have power to suspend any teacher or truant officer for cause deemed by him sufficient, and the board of education shall take such action upon the restoration or removal of such person as it may deem proper. All appointments and promotions of teachers shall be made upon the basis of merit, to be ascertained as far as practicable, in cases of appointments, by examination, and in cases of promotion, by the length and character of service. Examination for appointment shall be conducted by the superintendent in accordance with the State law for the certification of teachers, and under such regulations as may be made by the board.

The superintendent of schools shall devote himself exclusively to the duties of his office, and shall have power to appoint clerks, whose number and salaries shall be fixed by the board, and shall have power to remove the same; shall exercise a general supervision over the schools of the city, examine their condition and progress, and shall keep himself informed as to the progress of education in other cities. He shall advise himself of the need of the extension of the school system of the city, shall make reports from time to time as may be fixed by the rules or directed by the board, and shall be responsible to the board for the condition of the instruction and discipline of the schools. The term "teachers" as used herein shall include supervisors, supervising principals, and principals.

Massachusetts.—The superintendent shall, under the direction of the school committee, have the care and supervision of the public schools, and shall be the executive officer of the school committee. He shall assist the school committee in keeping its records and accounts and in making such reports as are required by law. He shall recommend teachers to the school committee, and shall also recommend textbooks and courses of study to the school committee.

Michigan.—In all villages and cities organized as graded-school districts the board of education must employ a superintendent who shall have the following duties: (a) To recommend in writing all teachers necessary for the schools, and to suspend any teacher for cause until the board of education, or a committee of such board, may consider such suspension; (b) to classify and control the promotion of pupils; (c) to recommend to the board the best methods of arranging the courses of study and the proper textbooks to be used; (d) to make reports in writing to the board of education and to the superintendent of public instruction annually, or oftener if required, in regard to all matters pertaining to the educational interests of the district; (e) to supervise and direct the work of the teachers; (f) to assist the board in all matters pertaining to the general welfare of the school and to perform such other duties as the board may determine.

Montana.—The superintendent shall have supervision of the schools of the district, under the supervision of the board of trustees. He shall be the executive officer of the board and shall perform such duties as the board of trustees may prescribe.

New Jersey.—The superintendent of schools shall, when required by the board of education, devote himself exclusively to the duties of his office. He shall have general supervision over the schools of the district and shall examine into their conditions and progress, and report thereon from time to time as directed by the board of education. He shall have such other powers and perform such other duties as may be prescribed by said board. He may appoint and remove clerks in his office, but the number and salaries of such clerks shall be determined by said board. Said superintendent shall render annually, on or before the 1st day of August, to the commissioner of education, and in the

manner and form prescribed by him, a report of such matters relating to the schools under his supervision as shall be required by said commissioner of education.

No principal or teacher shall be appointed, transferred, or dismissed, nor the amount of his or her salary fixed; no school term shall be determined, nor shall any course of study be adopted or altered, nor textbooks selected, except by a majority vote of the whole number of members of the board of education.

The superintendent of schools may, with the approval of the president of the board of education, suspend any assistant superintendent, principal, or teacher, and shall forthwith report such suspension to the board of education, which board shall take such action for the restoration or removal of such assistant superintendent, principal, or teacher as it shall deem proper: *Provided*, That such action shall be by a majority vote of all the members of said board.

New York.—The superintendents of schools of a city shall possess, subject to the by-laws of the board of education, the following powers and be charged with the following duties:

1. To enforce all provisions of law and rules and regulations relating to the management of the schools and other educational, social, and recreational activities under the direction of the board of education; to be the chief executive officer of such board and the educational system; and to have a seat in the board of education and the right to speak on all matters before the board, but not to vote.

2. To prepare the content of each course of study authorized by the board of education, but in a city having a board of superintendents the content of each of such courses shall be prepared and recommended by the board of superintendents, submitted to the board of education for its approval, and when thus approved the superintendent or board of superintendents, as the case may be, shall cause such course of study to be used in the grades, classes, and schools for which they are authorized.

3. To recommend suitable lists of textbooks to be used in the schools, but in a city having a board of superintendents such board of superintendents shall recommend to the board of education such lists.

4. To have supervision and direction of associate, district, and other superintendents, directors, supervisors, principals, teachers, lecturers, medical inspectors, nurses, attendance officers, janitors, and other persons employed in the management of the schools or the other educational activities of the city authorized by this chapter and under the direction and management of the board of education; to transfer teachers from one school to another, or from one grade of the course of study to another grade in such course, and to report immediately such transfers to said board for its consideration and action, but in a city having a board of superintendents such transfers shall be made upon the recommendation of such board; to report to said board of education violations of regulations and cases of insubordination; and to suspend an associate, district, or other superintendent, director, supervisor, expert, principal, teacher, or other employee until the next regular meeting of the board when all facts relating to the case shall be submitted to the board for its consideration and action.

5. To have supervision and direction over the enforcement and observance of the courses of study, the examination and promotion of pupils, and over all other matters pertaining to playgrounds, medical inspection, recreation, and social center work, libraries, lectures, and all the other educational activities and interests under the management, direction, and control of the board of education, but in a city having a board of superintendents rules and regulations for the promotion and graduation of pupils shall be made by the board.

6. To issue such licenses to teachers, principals, directors, and other members of the teaching and supervising staff as may be required under the regulations of the board of education in cities in which such board requires its teachers to hold qualifications in addition to or in advance of the minimum qualifications required under this chapter. In a city having a board of examiners, such licenses shall be issued on the recommendation of such board.

North Dakota.—The superintendent of schools shall, subject to the final authority of the board, supervise the administration of the course of study, visit schools, examine classes, and have general supervision of the professional work of the schools, including the holding of teachers' meetings and the classification of teachers. The superintendent, from time to time, shall make reports to the board of education embodying the recommendations relative to the employment of teachers and janitors, adoption of textbooks, changes in the

course of study, enforcement of discipline, and general school matters, and shall also make such other reports and perform such other duties as the board of education may direct and delegate.

Ohio.—The superintendent, subject to the approval and confirmation of the board, may appoint all the teachers, and for cause suspend any person thus appointed until the board or a committee thereof considers such suspension. Any city or exempted village board of education, upon a three-fourths vote of its full membership, may so employ any teacher whom the superintendent refuses to appoint. Such superintendent shall visit the schools under his charge, direct and assist teachers in the performance of their duties, classify and control the promotion of pupils, and perform such other duties as the board determines. He must report to the board annually, and oftener if required, as to all matters under his supervision, and may be required by it to attend any and all of its meetings. He may take part in its deliberations but shall not vote.

Pennsylvania.—The superintendent shall have a seat in the board and the right to speak but without vote; he shall see that the branches prescribed by law are taught; shall report to the State superintendent, and shall perform such other duties as may be required by the board.

South Dakota.—The superintendent, subject to the rules and regulations of the board, shall have general supervision of the schools of the corporation.

Vermont.—The superintendent shall visit the schools of the town at least once each term, and oftener if the board of school directors so direct, note the method of instruction and government, inform himself of the progress of the pupils, and give necessary advice to teachers. He shall, on visiting a school, observe the condition of the schoolhouse, outbuildings, and grounds, ascertain if such school is properly supplied with maps, reference books, and apparatus, and its pupils with necessary textbooks, and make such recommendations to the board of school directors as to the conditions and needs of the school as he may deem necessary.

Wisconsin.—In all cities except cities of the first class the superintendent's duties shall be: To examine and license teachers; to supervise the administration of the courses of study; to have general supervision of the professional work of the schools of the city, including the holding of teachers' meetings and the promotion of pupils; from time to time to make a written report to the board of education or board of school commissioners embodying such recommendations relative to the employment of teachers, adoption of textbooks, changes in the course of study, enforcement of discipline, and such other matters as said superintendent may deem for the best interests and welfare of the city schools; to make such other reports and to perform such other duties as the board of education may direct and which are not in conflict with the provisions of this act.

Since only a few State laws define in more than a general way the duties of city school superintendents, whatever duties are definitely assigned him must be assigned by the city board of education. From a study of the rules and regulations of 50 of the smaller cities regarding the duties of the superintendent it is evident that many boards do not consider the superintendent the person to perform certain duties. The following shows the duties assigned by the 50 boards and the number of boards requiring each:

Act as executive officer of the board, 36; have general supervision of instruction, 50; recommend teachers, 10; assign and transfer teachers, 12; recommend dismissal of teachers, 5; keep a record of teachers' work, 20; suspend employees, 12; attend board meetings, 21; make suggestions to board for improvement of schools, 25; suspend pupils, 45; supervise promotion of pupils, 35; prepare courses of study, 12; recommend textbooks, 3; hold teachers' meetings, 25; visit schools as often as possible, 45; keep informed of school conditions elsewhere, 35; make monthly or annual report to school board, 35; hear complaints of parents, 6; fill temporary vacancies, 20; supervise janitors, 20.

Though few of the rules and regulations give the superintendent power to nominate teachers, 483, or 92.8 per cent, of 520 superintendents reporting nominate teachers—228 to a teachers' committee and 255 directly to the board.

In 1915 only 72 per cent of the superintendents reporting nominated teachers. The shortage of teachers during the war period caused many school boards that had not been consulting the superintendent regarding the election of teachers to turn to him to look up teachers. Several superintendents have reported that the shortage of teachers was the means of getting the authority to select the teaching corps. It is not probable that many of the school boards that have thus given the superintendent authority to nominate teachers will return to their former plan of not consulting him.

In many of the cities where the superintendent nominates teachers he is permitted to visit, at the expense of the board, the schools taught by the applicants, also the normal schools and colleges the applicants are attending, to inquire into their classroom work and their general qualifications. In several cities that have built up most efficient corps of instructors the teacher's qualifications are first looked into by the principal under whom she is to teach. The principal then indicates two or three of the most promising, from whom the superintendent makes his selection. By this plan a superintendent does not select a teacher not agreeable to the principal for whom she is to teach.

Of the 50 rules examined, only three definitely require the superintendent to select textbooks. In practice, however, 485, or 93.2 per cent, of 520 superintendents reporting recommend the textbooks to be used. In some instances this is done only after a committee composed of principals and teachers has made a recommendation to the superintendent.

One of the rules of most school boards is that the superintendent shall visit the schools as often as his other duties will permit. The only other duties that should keep a superintendent from visiting classrooms are these: Preparing for teachers' meetings; visiting schools in other cities; preparing outlines and courses of study; preparing reports for the school board; answering such correspondence as can not be answered by his secretary; interpreting statistics, etc., all of which require part, but not all, of the superintendent's time. In a small city school system the superintendent can, if he has clerical assistance, be out visiting his schools at least two-thirds of the time. One of the complaints teachers often make against a superintendent is that he does not visit their classrooms often enough to be familiar with their work or be of any assistance. The best schools in the small cities are those where the superintendent keeps in touch with classroom work and aids his teachers in every possible way. It is true that a superintendent should be more than a teacher of teachers, but it is very doubtful whether there are many small city schools that do not require a superintendent to help train the teachers and to keep them progressive, even if they have had much professional training.

None of the 50 rules examined require the superintendent to submit an annual school budget, yet in practice, 252, or 50 per cent, of 505 superintendents reporting say that they compile the budget for the consideration of the school board. The school boards not permitting this expect the superintendent to be the educational leader, but fail to see that educational and financial administration are so closely bound together that they can not be separated.

There are no specific provisions in any of the 50 rules and regulations which require the superintendent to approve or disapprove of an architect's plan for buildings. Though no data were collected, it may be safely asserted that superintendents in about half of the smaller cities are called upon for suggestions regarding the plans for new buildings, but it is doubtful whether many have authority to approve or to disapprove. There would be fewer school buildings illy adapted for school use if school superintendents—even teachers, janitors, and others—were consulted more frequently regarding certain features of school buildings.

A superintendent who performs the duties assigned to him may or may not be efficient. If he does nothing more than obey the rules laid down by a school board he is a failure, since there are many things not definitely assigned just as essential to efficient management and progress of a school system as those that are expressed in definite rules and regulations.

The following paragraphs treat briefly of some of the duties usually tacitly assigned by board members and the community, and some of the characteristics demanded by a board and community of their superintendent. It is generally agreed that any superintendent who can not meet these demands is unsuited to the position.

One of the duties of a superintendent is that of keeping the community interested in its schools. The success of any school system has been found to depend largely upon public opinion. It is the history of schools everywhere that reforms can not be forced upon the people; that they must be educated to the necessity of having better schools. In many communities amply able to support open-air classes, kindergarten classes, etc., there are no such classes because the taxpayers do not know the value of these things. Health supervision would be introduced into more schools if the people were made to see the need for it. Some communities have been slow in introducing drawing and manual training work because they are not informed as to its value. Several years ago a school board introduced the subject of drawing. Many of the taxpayers thought it a useless expenditure to employ a drawing supervisor, but the superintendent kept the matter before the people, and when he showed results all complaint ceased.

In another city some influential people had the board discharge the music teacher on the ground that if parents wanted their children taught music they should employ a private teacher. Only hard work on the part of the superintendent convinced the community of the value of music in the schools. These are extreme cases, but they illustrate the necessity for the superintendent to keep his community informed and interested.

In a certain city once noted for its backward schools, the superintendent never once looked outside the four walls of his office except when he visited the classrooms, which was seldom. He could not see beyond the routine of office work. He did not run his school; it ran him around a beaten path, which grew deeper each year. When the clock struck 4 he went to his room to rest after the dull routine of the day. Whenever asked to address a public meeting he refused. Within a short time he had cut himself off from the life of the city. His work ran along for several years without any advancement in the schools. People grumbled about their school tax, which was low. The cost per capita was much below the average per capita cost for small cities. Finally, several progressive citizens and one or two school-board members began to inquire into the school system and to look about the country to see what other cities of the same size were doing for the schools. It is needless to say that the superintendent who had not mingled with the business and professional men of the city, who had not identified himself with the life of the community, who had not tried to keep the people informed, was dismissed at the expiration of his term.

His successor, by becoming acquainted with the people, by taking part in the life of the community, by becoming identified with the chamber of commerce, and by quietly calling the attention of all the people he met to the needs of the schools, soon aroused an interest among the taxpayers to such an extent that the tax rate was almost doubled within three years. There was not as much grumbling as there had been when the rate was low. The superintendent

touched the pride of the people by showing them that neighboring towns were spending more per pupil for their schools.

Progressive school boards are now demanding that the superintendent keep the people informed of school conditions; that he inform the public by carefully compiled data whether the schools are turning out a good product, whether they are doing this most economically, and whether they could still turn out a better product with an increased school budget.

The school systems that are liberally supported secure this support because the superintendent reports to the people, in a businesslike way, actual conditions—the shortcomings and the progress of the schools. For further discussion of the subject of school publicity see page 67, school reports.

One of the great problems in school administration is that of running the schools economically, not on a less tax rate but with the purpose of obtaining the greatest possible efficiency from the funds in hand. A business manager or a board may know more than a superintendent about purchasing janitor supplies and repairing buildings economically, but the superintendent should know what *instruction* to buy, how much and in what subjects; how many pupils to be assigned a teacher, how many supervisors to be employed, how many daily recitations a high-school teacher should conduct, and how many hours a high-school pupil should carry. All these involve the expenditure of money. In fact, a superintendent must be held responsible for the expenditure of at least 60 or 70 per cent of the operating expenses of a school system.

A superintendent who wishes to make the best use of the funds appropriated for instruction must determine whether the city can afford to have 25 high-school pupils in a division while each of the grade teachers has classes of 50 or 60 pupils. He must decide how much the annual cost will be reduced with 30 instead of 25 in a division. In a high school enrolling 600 students 3 fewer teachers will be required with 30 pupils in a division than with 25, making a saving of \$4,800 a year. Is a superintendent justified in spending \$4,800 a year additional simply because he thinks better work can be done with 25 than with 30 pupils in a class? Possibly better work can be done; but the question is, How should the \$4,800 be used? If there is only a certain amount of money available and if the lower grades are crowded, there is but one answer.

If the cost per capita is low, the fact should be shown. Statistics regarding cost per pupil in 40 or 50 cities can be easily estimated from the fiscal statistics in the Report of the United States Commissioner of Education. Does the cost per pupil fall below the median? If so, why? The public should be required to answer this. If the cost falls above the median, what then? The superintendent must show that the schools under his supervision are turning out an efficient product and that to decrease the cost per capita would handicap the work of the schools. Among the points that have been discussed in one or two reports are: 1. What are the schools trying to do? 2. Are they doing what they are trying to do? 3. Do you approve their policy? 4. Is their policy carried out economically? 5. Are they administered efficiently? 6. Can the city afford to continue the present policy? 7. Can the city afford not to continue it? A school board that requires its superintendent to set forth facts on these and other essential points commands the respect of the public and secures their cooperation more easily than those boards that do not require the superintendent to make a clear-cut analysis of school conditions for the stockholders of the school corporation—the taxpayers.

In a small city a superintendent can not be totally oblivious to the financial phase. If he is, he will soon bring his board to bankruptcy, or as only so much money is available for the schools in any city, he will not secure the best results from the funds appropriated.

To illustrate further why the superintendent should make a study of relative values: How many recitations a week should a high-school pupil carry? Most schools require 20; a few require more. If 20 recitations a week are better for a pupil than 25, there is not only an educational loss but a great financial one in those schools requiring the latter number. In a high school of 300 students reciting 25 times a week in divisions of 25 pupils each, it will require two more teachers, or an addition of approximately \$3,200 to the cost of instruction.

Several years ago the number of recitations in a high school was reduced to 17 a week, thus saving \$4,000 a year. In making a study of the educational gains and losses the superintendent of schools says that, while no definite or even reliable answer can be found in mere opinion, the opinions of the principals and heads of departments were about equally divided for and against, with a slight tendency, on the whole, to favor the plan of 17 hours a week. If 17 recitations a week produce as good results, it is evident that there is a great financial waste in many schools.

What will be the educational loss if a high-school teacher instructs six classes a day instead of five? What will be the financial gain? With six recitations a day instead of five there will be a saving of approximately several thousand dollars in a high school enrolling 600 pupils. Could that amount be used so that there would be better educational results than can be secured by having a teacher instruct but five classes a day? The question for the superintendent to determine is, however, which is best with the funds on hand.

A board endeavoring to determine the efficiency of a superintendent should ascertain whether he makes a study of relative values or whether he makes a "hobby" of certain work, recommending the appropriation of funds for this, irrespective of the needs of other work. The high school may be overemphasized in comparison with the grades, or it may be the reverse. Not that too much attention can be given to either, but that relatively too much attention may be given to the one at the expense of the other when only a certain amount of money is available.

Another test of a superintendent's efficiency is whether he is gaining the confidence of pupils, parents, and teachers. A new superintendent may for some reason not gain the confidence of the public at the beginning of his term, especially in a city where it is necessary to make reforms, but even then, if he is the man to make the reforms, he will finally secure the cooperation of people in the community. The school board in a certain city, becoming convinced that their schools were the poorest in the State, engaged a superintendent after much opposition from some politicians with whom the former superintendent had been closely associated. The board, not wishing the new superintendent to be hampered, elected him for a term of four years, telling him that they were leaving it to him to improve the schools. They told him that there would be much opposition to his trying new policies; that he would no doubt find it necessary to recommend the dismissal of some teachers who had influential friends; and that he would have to establish law and order in several of the school buildings.

At first he made many enemies, but before his term had expired he had convinced the people that he had pursued the right course. This incident is mentioned to show that because a superintendent's policies are not at first approved by the people is not a necessary reason for considering him a failure in that community. To be successful he must, however, within a reasonable time secure their confidence and cooperation.

Whether the superintendent administers his affairs in an orderly way is one of the criteria by which board members often judge him. There are super-

intendents who possess a thorough knowledge of methods of teaching and who are well grounded in the principles of school administration, yet who do not manage their affairs so as to make every minute count. It must be remarked in this connection, however, that a superintendent may plan a day's work with the utmost care and then have all his plans upset by something that demands his immediate attention. He may even have promised to do a certain thing at a certain time, but other duties of greater and more pressing importance compel him to change plans and cancel engagements. The test should be whether the superintendent attends at once to those things demanding immediate attention and is able to discriminate between the fundamental and the trivial.

For a superintendent to administer his affairs in an orderly way he must have a good memory not only for large affairs but for details. A superintendent who possessed splendid ideals and who remembered only the large outlines of his work failed as a superintendent because he did not remember details. He would meet a group of teachers and tell them something he wanted done. A week later he would give other orders, forgetting what he had previously said. The school board would instruct him to investigate certain matters. He would proceed with admirable spirit, but would forget some necessary detail. The teachers complained that they never knew what was expected of them, because he issued so many contradictory orders. Though a truthful man, this superintendent was accused of falsehood, because he did not remember promises he had made. School boards, as a rule, do not condemn a superintendent if he does not remember all the details connected with the administration of schools, but they do expect him to have in mind sufficient detail to fill in the larger outlines of his work.

In a few instances board members have been known to refuse to help reelect a superintendent who has not agreed with them on certain points. This in itself is no valid reason for not reelecting a superintendent unless the superintendent has made the issue a personal and not a professional matter. In some instances board members themselves make the issue a personal matter. Among progressive school boards all questions relating to school work discussed by board members with the superintendent are considered on a professional and not a personal basis. The personal element is eliminated. Where this is done the schools are undoubtedly better. A school-board member in a city that has good schools, speaking of the superintendent, said that he did not like the man personally, but that he would vote for his reelection because he considered him a most excellent superintendent. Another board member in a city where the schools are below average said of the superintendent: "I know that he is not securing the best results, but I like him. He is a good fellow, and I am in favor of his reelection." The first board member eliminated the personal element and considered the welfare of the schools; the other could not rise to this higher plane.

One of the great tests of a superintendent's efficiency is his ability to select good teachers. If he will nominate any teacher because she is suggested by influential friends, he thereby demonstrates that he is unfitted for his position. If he makes careful inquiry regarding each applicant from people who really know something of the applicant's ability as a teacher, and then makes his nominations irrespective of religion, politics, or residence, the board usually feels somewhat assured that every effort has been made to secure the best teacher for the position.

Another test is whether the superintendent has the ability to inspire his teachers with high ideals and to help them solve classroom problems. No matter how carefully a superintendent selects teachers, most of them will need help. In a small city some will be just out of normal school, and though

they have been well trained they will need to be adjusted to real conditions, while others may have had experience in a country school without much supervision. All these must be helped, and if many fail, provided due care has been exercised in their selection, it is evident that the superintendent has not been doing his duty. If many pupils of normal ability and well prepared for the grade fail under a teacher, suspicion is not wanting that the teaching has been poor; so if many teachers fail, suspicion points toward the superintendent. He should be asked to explain why the teachers are failing.

The superintendents who do not visit classrooms with the thought of helping teachers by means of frank talks and constructive criticism are doing but little to help improve their teachers. A mere office superintendent can do little to improve his teachers. His principals may render much assistance, but in a small city the superintendent must himself make a first-hand diagnosis of the case.

In a certain city the school machinery as outlined on paper is perfect. In practice many of the purely administrative problems have been solved, but the superintendent knows little of what the teachers are doing and of their methods of instruction. On the whole, the teaching in that city is poor. The very object of the schools is defeated because the superintendent makes little effort to help his teachers, and many of them need much help.

In another city, that pays its teachers considerably less, the teaching is much better. The superintendent in this city realizes that it is his duty to help the teachers by visits, teachers' meetings, and private conferences. He turns all the details of office work, such as accounting for supplies, over to a competent clerk and devotes most of his time to improving classroom instruction.

Although superintendents in the past have not been judged to any great extent by the attitude they take toward a scientific study of education, school-board members are beginning to ask whether the superintendent knows what advancement teachers are making, whether he knows which teachers are succeeding and which are not. In other words, school boards are beginning to ask superintendents to show, more definitely than they have been showing, what the results are and what the children have achieved. The old idea of judging the work of teachers by mere opinion is passing away. More definite measurements are used. The practical school-board member should not rest content until he knows that the superintendent is at least attempting to learn how to measure the efficiency of his schools.

Does the superintendent have the power of leadership or does he shape his policies to suit the opinions of some few influential citizens or board members? This is a question school boards are beginning to ask. The superintendent can no longer be considered a mere figurehead. He must formulate policies, present them to the board, and, if necessary, fight for their adoption. No school board member should condemn a superintendent for making a strong appeal for certain policies; rather he should admire him. This does not mean that a superintendent who is always fighting for some reform is to be regarded as a successful superintendent. School boards are coming to realize that, as a rule, the superintendent who accomplishes the most, who places the schools on a sound foundation, is one who makes few reforms at a time, one who tests each step so that there can be no retreat, or, if there is a retreat, he utilizes it to secure a better point of attack.

Only occasionally are conditions so bad when a new superintendent takes charge of a school system that radical reforms are necessary. Any radical reform upsets the whole school system and often results disastrously, while a steady hammering extending over a longer period of time accomplishes more.

After a radical reform there is generally a reaction. Reaction is likely to follow hasty reforms, and reforms beyond the point that the public comprehends.

One question many board members ask is whether the superintendent is a man of ideals. Does he see the big things or only the petty affairs? Has he vision? Is he planning big things for the school for next year and the next? Many school boards realize that a superintendent who can not or does not do this can never hope to advance the schools of his city beyond their present condition.

QUALIFICATIONS.

The qualifications of a superintendent have been touched upon in outlining some of his duties. The questions which board members of some of the progressive schools are asking when in search of a superintendent are: What is his education? What experience has he had (1) as teacher, (2) as supervisor, (3) as an executive? Has he been successful? What is his personality? Does he take an interest in community life? Has he in his present position succeeded in interesting the people in their schools? Is he a graduate of a school or college of education? Is he progressive?

The following quotations from replies of presidents of boards of education in the smaller cities to the question, "What do you consider the essential qualifications of a city superintendent, or by what standard do you judge your superintendent," show what these school-board presidents consider the essential qualifications of a city school superintendent:

Albuquerque, N. Mex.—The first qualification of such a city superintendent is that he should be a business executive who has specialized in the business of education.

His ability to teach all subjects and grades or any given subject or grade is of small importance, but his ability to choose and retain in his employ those who are able and willing to perform the particular work allotted to them and to carry the responsibility for the success of such work is of great importance. In the matter of teaching, he should be able to distribute the responsibility to subordinates, judging their work by results rather than by detail, and to coordinate their work to a common end.

He must be able to look upon his school as a great business corporation, usually with a more valuable plant and more numerous stockholders than any other in his community, and to appreciate that he is the responsible head of that corporation.

In common with every other business executive who has not employed an expert in that line, he must be thoroughly familiar with the system and machinery of taxation, but for a different reason. While his plant is not subject to taxation, it is dependent upon it. That is the source of his plant revenue, and I should say that a business executive who does not give the closest attention to the source of revenue upon which his plant depends is not properly representing those to whom he is responsible.

He must know how, when, where, and what to buy and not to buy. He must be able to eliminate waste, both of energy and of material. He must be economical, but not penurious; thrifty, but not stingy. He must see that complete accounts are kept and be able to understand and interpret them and to know at all times the exact financial status of his plant.

He must be a salesman. His product is education and his customers are the parents of his city. The success of his plant depends upon his satisfied customers, not that every customer must be satisfied at all hazards, but within the limit of the best interests of his institution. His stockholders, the taxpayers, must also be satisfied. They must see dividends in the shape of benefits to the community commensurate with their interests.

The work of a city superintendent of schools naturally divides itself into two classes, that of superintendence of the educational work and that of business management. This work is too heavy in the average city of the size I have suggested for any one man to handle in all its details. Inasmuch as the larger number of his subordinates are specialists in educational work, the most of

his delegation of authority naturally will be in the first subdivision of his duties just mentioned. This will leave him more time for his work of business management. The difficulty usually is that the city superintendent has had no business training, but has come up from the ranks of the teaching profession, but according to my view we need not expect efficiency from our city superintendents until they are able to handle their plant from the standpoint of any other business man.

Alhambra, Calif.—First. He should be a man enthused with the necessity and importance of education. A man who is ever studying new problems along this line and ready to undertake such as look feasible, but not a dreamer.

Second. An executive. A man with sufficient business knowledge to present the problems of his administration clearly, concisely, and forcibly to his board of education, and who can offer intelligent solutions of the problems that are presented.

Third. A man familiar with the educational needs of our children, not necessarily a teacher himself.

Fourth. An organizer.

Fifth. A man possessed of magnetic personality.

Sixth. A man of pleasing address, and a good public speaker.

Seventh. A judge of human nature, capable of making an intelligent selection of teachers best fitted to teach their respective subjects.

Attleboro, Mass.—First. Ability to pick out the best qualified men and women for positions on our teaching force.

Second. Executive ability to administer the public-school system on a business basis.

We make our superintendent responsible for maintaining a high standard in the teaching force. We expect that he will place the administration of the business affairs on as efficient a basis as would be expected in a business of the same size.

We demand that politics should be kept out of the school department, and that our superintendent shall be open to new ideas and shall constantly strive to keep abreast of the forward movement of education in this country.

Augusta, Me.—One who is cautious and painstaking in the numerous small details of his position. The great matters care for themselves.

Boise, Idaho.—(1) He should have executive ability of at least fair, if not a high, order; the larger the school system, the greater the necessity for a strong executive who fully appreciates the necessity for the elimination of waste, not only in education but in the purchasing and handling of supplies, the erection of buildings, and in the management and overhead. Training schools for teachers and educators have not, in my opinion, dwelt sufficiently on this in the past, and the result is that, while superintendents are pressing their right to manage the business end of school administration and to practically direct all expenditures, many of them are not so equipped for such work as to inspire confidence in the school boards in their ability to economically and efficiently handle the business. I think school boards will generally welcome the time when experienced and well-trained educators can efficiently manage the business affairs of the district.

(2) He should have qualities of leadership in educational matters, so as to hold the confidence of his teachers and coworkers, as well as the confidence of the members of the board, who look to him for right guidance in the adoption of educational policies.

(3) He should be able to take a leading part in community affairs, somewhat commensurate with that taken by executives or managers of private concerns of somewhat similar magnitude in the community.

(4) His training and experience in educational matters should be at least sufficient to enable him to discriminate between the essential and nonessential in public-school education and to give the public, whenever required, the fundamental reasons supporting his educational policies. In other words, he should have a clear vision of the preparation and training the young people of to-day should have to meet the requirements of industry and society when the boys and girls now in the schools will have to take positions of leadership, responsibility, and trust.

Cheyenne, Wyo.—Assuming that he has had the proper training in college, he should be broad-minded and firm; he should not let religious or political influences interfere with the administration of the schools; he should have a business training (this is necessary where the superintendent looks after the

expense of running the schools) ; he should outline his policies at the beginning of the term and see to it that they are strictly adhered to, and visit the schools often enough to know that his instructions are being carried out ; he should be strict in complying with the laws laid down by the board of health.

Columbus, Ga.—A superintendent of schools in a small city has a greater variety of duties to perform than has a superintendent of a large system, where the work is necessarily divided among several heads of departments. A superintendent of schools, therefore, in a city with a population of less than 50,000 should be a well-rounded man.

To manage successfully such a system of schools a superintendent should be a good business man, in order that school appropriations should purchase the greatest possible amount of service and materials, which will largely work to allay the charge of extravagance and wastefulness. He should also be familiar with the best thought on the construction of school buildings and of equipment.

Above all other requirements, a superintendent of schools should be a well-informed person on all teaching methods and practices ; otherwise he would not be able to intelligently criticize methods which are employed or should be employed or to judge the fitness of teachers under him. The purpose of all schools is instruction, and a superintendent should not fail in this regard.

The superintendent of any system of schools should be a leader in a way that he may be able to represent the schools on any and all occasions. Naturally, the schools must and should have the support of the public, and this can not always be secured unless the public understands the policies and the aspirations of the school administration. The superintendent should be an exponent of this administration, as well as the board which elects them, if not even more so. In other words, a superintendent should not only be a well-rounded, educational man, but he should be a good executive and an administrative man.

Grand Forks, N. Dak.—We consider the first and most essential qualification of a superintendent is that he be a good organizer, who can place the teachers in the positions where they can do the most efficient work. Next in importance would be that of a practical knowledge of efficient instruction. A superintendent must be a good judge of character and be able to check up the work done by the teachers under him. He must also be thoroughly posted on the philosophy of education to know what are the essential subjects to be emphasized in the school work.

Hutchinson, Kans.—First. A superintendent must be of very high character, and his morals must be unquestioned.

Second. He should have executive ability, so as to hold his teachers together in a compact organization and have their respect at all times as such executive.

Third. He should be able to judge whether or not the various teachers under him are rendering efficient service to the board of education employing them. This information may be obtained by departmental superintendents or directly by the superintendent himself, but this information should be at all times with the superintendent.

Fourth. He must have a personal bearing that will command the personal respect of the pupils with whom he comes in contact and of the parents of the pupils.

Fifth. He should be up to date in his educational methods and should be as efficient as any man standing at the head of a great corporation.

Mansfield, Ohio.—1. He should have an academic degree.

2. He should have a higher degree, as for example, the M. A. degree, secured in a reputable college of education.

3. He should be a man of successful teaching experience.

4. He should be a man of unquestionable character.

5. He should be highly professional, as evidenced by his ability to arouse a professional spirit among his teachers and his attendance upon the different teachers' associations.

6. He should be a man with a well-poised disposition.

7. He should manifest an interest in the various community enterprises.

8. He must have courage to execute with the board and his teaching faculty his major ideas.

9. He must be strictly honest and upright.

10. He must be free from any bad habits.

We measure the work of our superintendent by the following :

1. His constructive cooperation with the board of education.

2. His ability to keep the curricula up to date.

3. His ability to organize his teaching forces upon the most economic and efficient basis.

4. The exercise of that type of leadership which causes the teaching personnel to do team work in the most willing and harmonious fashion.

5. His treatment of the discordant elements in the community so as to produce the least possible friction.

6. The exercise of such social control in the community as wins the high respect and regard of our best-thinking people.

Olean, N. Y.—The qualifications for an efficient superintendent should be executive ability, education, and capability of imparting instruction in teaching.

Selma, Ala.—First. He should have a good education, should be a graduate of a very good college.

Second. He should have had several years' experience as a teacher.

Third. He should be a man of good common sense and of tact, so as to be able to properly handle daily school problems with pupils and patrons.

Fourth. He should know how to control himself and thus be able to receive and answer criticism.

Fifth. He should be aggressive and keep abreast with what is new and essential, and not be satisfied with what has been accomplished in the system; and yet not given to extravagance where the income is limited, as it is with us.

Sixth. He should take an interest in the public affairs of the community and be ready to further what is for the good of the same.

Tucson, Ariz.—A superintendent of schools should be mentally alert, educationally and morally fit. His school should be kept up to standard as to entrance qualifications and credits required for graduation. Cramming of facts should not be the sole result, but pupils should be given proper outlook on life and should be taught how to think straight. Certain attention must be paid to vocational work, business principles, and physical culture.

A superintendent must be able to meet and hold the respect of the public. He must have tact and a certain amount of diplomacy. If possible, his relation with his board should be one of cooperation rather than servile obedience.

TENURE.

A little more than one-half, or 263 of 510 superintendents reporting, are elected annually; 28 are elected for a term of two years; 81 for three years; 88 for four years; 18 for five years; 1 for six years; 1 for eight years; and 31 are given indefinite or permanent tenure.

It is difficult to understand why more State school laws have not been so amended as to require boards of education to elect superintendents for a term of at least three years. It is evident that no superintendent, however keen his insight into school conditions and however good an administrator he may be, can do much constructive work the first year of his term. In fact, the efficient administrator usually does not attempt to do much more than to make a careful study of the situation. After he has reached his conclusions, it takes several more years to work out his plans. To ask a new superintendent to show results in a year is asking the impossible. He may stir up the dust to keep down criticism for inaction, but he can not institute many lasting reforms in the space of 12 months. A year's time proves little either for or against a superintendent. It is evident that a city that changes superintendents frequently does not have any definite educational policy.

Making frequent changes in superintendents is one of the evils in small cities. In 1920, of 2,197 superintendents in cities of less than 30,000 population, only 1,131 were in the same cities as in 1917, making a change of 48.5 per cent. Of course, all these changes were not caused by boards of education refusing to reelect their superintendents. Many secured better positions in other cities, and again others dropped out for more remunerative or more congenial employment in other fields.

THE TEACHER.

SALARY SCHEDULE AND PROMOTION OF TEACHERS.

The salary schedule for teachers in 225 cities of 520 reporting is based upon preparation, experience, and merit, while in 295 of the cities length of service is the chief factor in determining compensation; that is, a teacher begins at a minimum salary, which automatically increases a certain amount, as \$50 a year, until the fifth or sixth year. The salary reached at the end of the period then becomes the amount the teacher receives annually for the remainder of her employment. Though this is the general method of promoting teachers, it has its serious defects.

In the first place, some teachers are worth very much more to a department than are others, and this worth is not dependent upon length of service. In the second place, such a plan offers no inducement for special industry or effort for self-improvement, since the teacher who does just enough to escape dismissal gets quite as much as the teacher whose heart is in her work. Then, there is a strong tendency among teachers, as among all workers on salary, when middle age is reached and the maximum salary is attained, to stop growing. A salary schedule having a maximum which is reached without any consideration of merit or additional preparation operates principally to inhibit growth.

However, with an adequate salary, with high standards of professional qualifications for entering teachers, and with good supervision, some cities have been able to develop a large part of the teaching corps into good teachers. It ought, however, to be possible to devise a plan which will permit of an increase in salary, beyond a maximum representing a large wage, for those teachers who show evidence of increasing scholarship and of professional preparation and who have demonstrated their efficiency.

It is doubtful whether many of the plans for recognizing efficiency in a salary schedule have been very successful. The teacher who is graded low compares herself with some other teacher more fortunate, and then concludes that she has been unfairly and unjustly marked. In not a few places the dissension in the corps in consequence of alleged unfairness in evaluating the efficiency of teachers has outweighed the benefits. Indeed, it is the fear of engendering such discord that has deterred many school boards from adopting a plan to recognize individual merit in terms of the salary schedule.

To avoid as far as possible this danger of unfairness and to provide a check against error of judgment, most superintendents making merit one of the factors in the promotion of teachers use a form for scoring the efficiency of each teacher. Many of the forms require that the teacher shall be graded by two or more persons and that the teacher be informed of her ranking before her salary for the year is fixed. The following discussion and proposed plan of teacher rating may be suggestive:¹

I. THE AIMS OF A TEACHER-RATING PLAN.

The chief purpose of a teacher-rating plan are:

- (a) To stress emphasis in teaching on the main objectives of the course of study.
- (b) To evaluate the results of teaching in terms of these aims.
- (c) To improve the quality of the teaching.

¹ Submitted to Bureau of Education, but author's name not attached.

II. NECESSARY CONDITION UNDERLYING A TEACHER-RATING PLAN.

A teacher-rating plan presupposes (a) a program of work which indicates clearly the values for which the teacher shall be rated; (b) a record of the intelligence (mental horsepower) of the members of the class; (c) an inventory of values attained by the class at the beginning as well as at the end of the term for which the teacher shall be rated.

III. PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING A TEACHER-RATING PLAN.

(a) The worth of any producer is in direct ratio to the worth of his product. The scientific way to determine the worth of the producer is to evaluate the product.

(b) The values rated in measuring teaching efficiency must coincide with the values emphasized in the course of study.

(c) These values may be stated in terms of knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, powers.

(d) Only those qualities of the product shall be rated which are plainly traceable.

(e) The beginning of any rating of a teacher shall lie in the teacher's own estimate of her work, stated in terms of knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, powers.

(f) Evidence of the worth of a teacher is of two kinds: Primarily, direct evidence based on a direct analysis of the product; secondarily, indirect evidence, based on an evaluation of such personal qualities, habits, scholastic attainments, methods, and efforts of the teacher as may safely be assumed to be reflected in the quality of the work. Direct evidence will always be considered the more valuable.

(g) The worth of a teacher to the system as a whole is in proportion mainly to her institutional spirit.

IV. THE EVIDENCE.

A. *Direct evidence.*—1. Direct evidence in general is the record of the pupils as officially recorded. The school that accepts a teacher's ratings of her pupils for other school purposes must accept her ratings of her pupils as evidence of her skill as a teacher. It is not conclusive evidence but it becomes a factor. The growing practice of applying the principle of the objective tests will improve the reliability of these ratings. Low pupils' ratings in themselves do not condemn a teacher. But they become a factor; possibly the factor will be reduced to zero when general intelligence tests and other reasonable factors are taken into consideration.

2. The best direct evidence of knowledge, as commonly understood, is the objective test. Additional evidence of knowledge, which will grow in modern schools, is the display of skill which necessarily presupposes certain knowledge.

3. Direct evidence of interest aroused by any teacher is always the display of enthusiasm on the part of the pupils in their work. This is manifest in the classroom "atmosphere," in special extra classroom activities, making of apparatus, reading of books, group activities growing out of teachers' efforts, science, mathematics, literary clubs, etc.

4. Direct evidence of the creation of ideals is evasive. The existence of an ideal is manifest in conduct. Good-student government is evidence of the presence of sound civic ideals. The best tardy record in school may indicate the influence of an ideal.

5. Direct evidence of habits formed can be traced, although at times one teacher may benefit by the work of another teacher. This is true particularly of those common habits of conduct which are expected of all pupils.

6. Direct evidence of power can readily be traced. Increased ability to write, to draw, to read, to spell, to perform mathematical operations, to take shorthand dictation, to transcribe notes, and other manifestations of power can be scientifically measured. A definite rating in power will stimulate wonderfully teaching activity to develop power and to find scientific ways to measure power.

B. *Indirect evidence.*—The following are lines of indirect evidence of the success of the teacher in attaining desired values: Plan book; good judgment in rating relative values; rating between pupil and teacher activity in the class-

room; character of questions asked by teacher; method based on sound pedagogy; treating vital problems; skillful lesson assignment; teaching pupils how to study; recognition of individual characteristics of pupils; proper use of drill (teaching to fixation point); enthusiasm of teacher (how manifest, possibly by leaving the building always as soon as the bell rings); number of pupils voluntarily choosing the teacher's subject; definite plans to create certain ideals in literature and civics and history; evidence of initiative on the part of the pupils, etc.

C. Evidence of the institutional worth of a teacher.—Evidence of the institutional worth of a teacher is called out by the following questions:

(1) Is she loyal to the system? This includes her relations to all her co-workers, teachers, supervisors, principals, and superintendent. This quality should be considered vital and should not be rated. The ethical standards of the profession of teaching should compel a disloyal teacher to resign.

(2) Has she institutional interests? Visits homes, knows the child's relation to his other school subjects; takes part in the social life of the school—parties, games, etc.

(3) Does she feel an institutional responsibility? Care of school property, desks, books, supplies, etc.; does she further the general morale of the school, oversight of halls, helpful in student government, helpful in furthering school projects.

(4) Does she have administrative sense? Never tardy; office reports accurate and sent in promptly; complies promptly with general office requests; leaves her keys in the office at end of day; school register in good condition; class rolls available in case of her absence; calls school promptly if not able to come to school.

V. FACTORS AFFECTING THE SUCCESS OF A TEACHER.

A. Personal characteristics.

Factors.	Why valuable.
1. Pleasing.	(a) Makes teacher's efforts more effective and pupils' response more generous.
2. Courteous.	(b) Cultivates these qualities in pupils. In the long run these qualities in the teacher are conditioned on health.
3. Cheerful.	Close personal relation between teacher and pupil impossible without it.
4. Enthusiastic.	
5. Sympathetic.	
6. Tactful but firm.	
7. Self-controlled.	
8. Impartial toward herself as well as toward her pupils.	Makes discipline easy.
9. Systematic.	Necessary for proper utilization of time and energy. Constructive program impossible without it.
10. Ambitious professionally.	A necessary condition of growth.
11. Teachable.	Teachers should not remain "the same yesterday, today, and forever."
12. Neat.	Like begets like. The community does not pay a teacher to develop slovenly habits in its children.
13. Voice clear, pleasing.	Adds emphasis to what teacher says.

B. Classroom.

1. Order.	Teacher must be in control if teacher's plans shall carry.
2. Air.	Proper physical conditions contribute much to success, but teacher is responsible only for what is under her control.
3. Light.	Tidy blackboards help to form habits of tidiness.
4. Heat.	Proper grouping increases efficiency of teacher's efforts.
5. Blackboards.	(a) Correct posture habits promote good health.
6. Pupils properly seated.	(b) Pupils imitate teacher.
7. Correct posture of teacher and pupil.	

C. Recitation.

1. The teacher.

(a) Language
clear, correct.

No excuse for deficiency here.

(b) Professional
equipment.

Knowledge of subject matter, of psychology of learning, of methods of teaching, of measuring results, all these condition the success of the teacher.

(c) Plans her
work.

All worth while work requires preparation. Best to record in plan book.

(d) Utilize time
well.

Waste of time is waste of opportunity.

(e) Resourceful.

! This quality "keeps things moving."

(f) Questions
well.

! (a) Good questions stimulate thought.

(g) Her influence
touches all.

(b) Rapid-fire questions drill fundamentals.

A democratic school rests on equal rights.

(h) Assigns lessons so as
to make pupils "want to get at it,"
and shows how to do it.

Basis of pupils' growth is intelligent pupil activity.

(i) Varies method according
to aim (knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, powers).

A good beginning is half the battle.

(j) Measures the
accomplishments of
her pupils.

Recognition of progress is great incentive to further progress.

2. Subject matter.

(a) Obsolete or
adapted to
modern social
needs.

Work is handicapped to the extent that teacher does not choose subject matter wisely and uses the best illustrative material the school furnishes.

VI. FORM ON WHICH TO ENTER INVENTORY OF VALUES.

Name of teacher.

Subject.

Class.

Time from _____ to _____

A. Program of work.

B. Special features of term's work in addition.

C. Evidence of values.

(1) Knowledge:

Remarks _____ Estimate _____

(2) Interests:

Remarks _____ Estimate _____

(3) Ideals:

Remarks _____ Estimate _____

(4) Habits:

Remarks _____ Estimate _____

(5) Powers:

Remarks _____ Estimate _____

The following scheme of rating teachers is in use in a number of schools:

Qualities rated.	Very poor.	Poor.	Medium.	Good.	Excellent.
I. Personal equipment:					
General appearance.....					
Health.....					
Voice.....					
Quickness of perception.....					
Initiative.....					
Adaptability, resourcefulness.....					
Accuracy.....					
Industry.....					
Enthusiasm and optimism.....					
Integrity and sincerity.....					
Self-control.....					
Promptness.....					
Tact.....					
Sense of justice.....					
II. Social and professional equipment:					
Grasp of subject matter.....					
Understanding of children.....					
Interest in school work.....					
Interest in parents.....					
Interest in lives of pupils.....					
Cooperation and loyalty.....					
Professional interest and growth.....					
Daily preparation.....					
Use of English.....					
Standing in community.....					
III. School management:					
Care of light, heat, and ventilation.....					
Neatness of room.....					
Discipline.....					
IV. Technique of teaching:					
Clearness of aim.....					
Skill in habit formation.....					
Skill in stimulating thought.....					
Skill in teaching how to study.....					
Skill in questioning.....					
Skill in care and assignment.....					
Skill in arousing interest.....					
Skill in getting pupils to work.....					
Ability to follow directions.....					
V. Results:					
Habit of attention of class.....					
Habit of willing obedience.....					
Growth of pupils in knowledge.....					
Moral influence.....					
Growth in habits of cleanliness.....					
Growth in habits of industry.....					

Most of the rating schemes attempt to formulate a basis for judging certain characteristics of the teacher. A teacher may have many of the characteristics called for on the score card, as health, good voice, self-control, honesty, etc., and not be a good teacher. There should therefore be some attempt to rate teachers on results. The following is suggested:¹³

I. *Pupil achievement*.—Minimum 50, maximum 75.

1. Objectively measured (for each subject).

a. Knowledge.

b. Skill.

2. Other achievements.

a. Habits of study.

b. Attitude toward—

Work.

School government.

School organization.

Moral questions.

Life preparation.

II. *Merit in mechanics of worker*.—Minimum 20, maximum 40.

1. Organization and administration of—

a. Tools.

b. Raw material.

2. Skill in technical method.

¹³ Raymond Kent. Jour. Educ. Research, Dec., 1920, p. 806.

III. *Merit as a social worker.*—Minimum 20, maximum 40.

1. Cooperation with organization.
2. Professional habits.
3. Success in dealing with parents.
4. Sympathetic interpretation of pupils.
5. Discharge of obligations as community member.

In the administration of any such plan for rating, the following would need to be taken for granted:

1. The knowledge of the potential ability of pupils to achieve, measured in terms of their intelligence.

2. A statement of pupil achievement at the beginning of any period over which the efficiency of a teacher's work is to be judged.

3. The working out of intelligible standards in the items to be listed under "other achievements."

4. Specific statement by the supervisor or in the course of study, or both, of the tools and methods to be used and how to use them.

Statement of intelligible and reasonable standards under which several factors combine to make a teacher successful as far as she is a worker in a social institution.

In a school system having a plan of detailed marking, a simpler form was introduced with marked success. A committee composed of the superintendent of schools, the general supervisor of instruction, and the principal of the building discuss the work of each teacher. The principal of the school first makes a written report to the superintendent, in which is set forth the principal's estimate of the teachers upon the following points: Professional growth, efficiency, management, and instruction; general merit—English, attitude, cooperation, thought stimulation, insight into child welfare; results—general, specific; personality—special strength, special lack, special achievement; comparison. After the principal's report has been submitted to the superintendent, he and the supervisor of instruction go over it with the principal and classify the teachers as A, B, and C. Class A receives the largest salary increase, class B somewhat less, and class C no increase whatever. If a teacher can not get out of this class after a year or two, she is dropped from the teaching staff.

The following plan is suggested as a possible solution of the salary schedule problem, based upon that suggested by Cubberley:¹³

Suggested salary schedule.

Group of teachers.	Time of ap- point- ment (years).	Salary schedule for each group.				Yearly in- crease.	Year in which group maxi- mum is reached.
		Elementary.		High.			
		Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.		
A. One-year teachers elected each year (pro- bationary for 3 years).	1	\$1,200	\$1,350	\$1,600	\$1,750	\$75	Third.
B. Three-year period.....	3	1,425	1,575	1,825	1,975	75	Third.
C. Five-year period.....	5	1,650	1,925	2,050	2,350	75	Fifth.
D. Permanent.....		2,000	2,525	2,275	2,950	75	Eighth.

A schedule such as this would have teachers who enter group A upon a probationary status subject to reelection for each year for three years. At the end of this period or before those who are unsatisfactory should be dropped from the corps and those who are rated successful should be promoted to

¹³ Cubberley, *Public School Administration*, p. 261.

group B, where they will automatically advance by increments for a period of three years. When the teacher has reached the maximum of group B the board may then promote her to group C if she has met the requirements demanded for promotion or keep her at the maximum salary of group B until she does qualify for group C. In group C the teacher is advanced by \$75 increments for a period of five years. When the maximum of group C is reached the teacher who has won promotion by her success in the classroom and by her efforts at self-improvement may be promoted to group D, where she will remain until she retires, except for specified cause. If in the judgment of school officials a teacher has not merited promotion, she can be retained at the maximum salary of the group she is in. The group arrangement permits the school board to set up certain standards to be attained at the end of the periods.

This suggested schedule is based upon the supposition that those teachers entering group A have just graduated from normal school and are beginning to teach their first term. If inexperienced teachers are not employed, teachers who have taught elsewhere may be employed and placed in the group to which their experience and preparation entitle them.

Promotion from group to group beyond the group B teachers should be granted only to those who have shown special merit and have given evidence of valuable professional study. To satisfy the latter condition the board might require the candidate for promotion to spend a year in study at some recognized college or university, or a year in teaching in some good school system in another part of the country, or perhaps a year of study and travel might be combined.

This suggested schedule would correct a weakness in many salary schedules by providing a wide range between the minimum and the maximum and a means for recognizing merit. A salary schedule with a range of only \$200 or \$300 between the minimum and the maximum does not tend to make teachers more efficient. By adopting a salary schedule similar to the one just outlined, with a wide range between the minimum and the maximum, an adjustment can be worked out between a teacher's proper desire for security of tenure and the board's proper desire to eliminate the teachers who do not continue to grow in efficiency. At the same time the teacher knows that efforts at self-improvement will find tangible reward in terms of salary increase.

SALARY FOR SICK LEAVE.

Of 516 cities reporting, 287 grant teachers sick leave for a definite period on full pay, and 156 on part full pay, or full pay less substitute's salary, or a specific amount, as \$2 a day. Leave not exceeding 5 days is granted in 225 cities; 5 to 10 days in 150; 11 to 20 days in 30; 20 to 30 days in 20; more than 30 days in 18 cities. It seems only just and fair that teachers be granted a certain number of days of sick leave on full pay; possibly two weeks would be a fair allotment. For sickness exceeding a few days at a time, a physician's certificate should be required. If the leave is only for a day or two, a certified statement by the teacher should be sufficient.

TENURE.

In most of the smaller cities it is customary to elect teachers each year. In 121 of the 528 cities reporting, the teachers are elected on probationary terms of one, two, or three years. In 109 of these 121 they are placed on permanent tenure after serving the probationary term. In all other cities the teachers are

elected annually, no matter how long they may have been in service. In the 528 cities reporting, 975 teachers were not reelected last year, or 3.25 per cent of the 30,000 teachers employed in these cities. Of the 975 teachers not reelected, 423, or 80.1 per cent, were advised not to make application.

It is very doubtful whether teachers should be given permanent tenure after a probationary period of one or two years. A better plan is to elect each year for three years, so that a teacher who has been unsuccessful may be dropped at the end of any school year. If at the end of three years a teacher has proved herself efficient she should be elected for a three-year period. Then at the close of the period she might, if successful, be given indefinite tenure. Under this plan a teacher would serve year after year without any formal action either on her part or that of the school board, and until such time as she resigns or as the board, for cause and upon the recommendation of the superintendent, terminates the contract.

Dr. E. P. Cubberley points out that indefinite tenure is preferable to permanent tenure, saying: ¹⁴

This middle ground is equally just to both sides. The usual condition is not just to teachers who have spent years in making preparation for a life work of service, and the life-tenure plan is not just to taxpayers or to the children in the schools. The latter certainly have rights as well as the teachers. The middle ground gives practically life tenure to every worthy teacher and school officer, but merely reserves to the board of control for the schools, acting on the recommendation of their chief executive officer and only after helpful advice has failed to bring the desired improvement, the right quietly to remove from the schools those who should not be there. To say that a school board has such power by trial, under the life-tenure laws, is to cherish a delusion. The machinery of such action is, of course, provided, but the difficulties in the way are such that it can seldom, if ever, be carried to a successful conclusion. In addition, the notoriety and the bitterness engendered by such public trials is demoralizing to the schools, and should be avoided by both sides in the interests of the children and the good name of the schools.

ELIMINATING THE INEFFICIENT TEACHER.

Some plan should be employed by the superintendent and the board for eliminating the teacher whose work has not measured up to proper standards of efficiency and who has not given evidence of professional growth. It is not possible to devise preliminary tests of efficiency which will prevent some teacher from getting into a school system who ought not to be there. However careful a superintendent and a board may be in appointing teachers, there will always be found some who fail to do creditable work. Every superintendent should have an efficient plan for trying out all who enter and for eliminating those from the schools who for one reason or another are not successful. Such a plan, however, must avoid making any seeming injustice to the teacher, and it must not be operated in any arbitrary or unsympathetic manner. The following plan may be suggested: At the close of each term the principals and supervisors should sit down with the superintendent and discuss the work of each teacher, grading each as excellent, satisfactory, or unsatisfactory, or some such rating. Those teachers who have taught only one year and who are ranked as unsatisfactory should as a rule be given another trial. This may be done by transferring them to other schools or other situations, and even perhaps to other grades than the ones to which the teachers were assigned. Such transfers should, however, be made only after each teacher has been told very frankly by the principal and superintendent what the criticism is. The teacher is

¹⁴ Cubberley, E. P. *Pub. Sch. Administration*, pp. 217-218.

thereby given another chance under new conditions. Some teachers might prefer to conquer in their present situation. Once the writer suggested to a young teacher that she change to another building, under another principal. She replied that she would prove that she could make good in her present position if given another trial, and that if she could not she would resign. She succeeded, but not all teachers are made of the same plucky material.

If the teacher who has been transferred fails again, there is as a rule but one course of action, and that is to tell her frankly that she will not be re-elected. She should, however, be informed several weeks before the close of the school term.

By some such plan as this the danger of snap judgment is avoided, the teachers are given every chance to make good, and the children are protected against the retention of teachers who have undertaken the calling and who should be in some other profession or at some trade. When teachers know that snap judgment has not been taken, and that every opportunity has been offered so that they could demonstrate their ability as teachers, very few will hesitate to quit the profession or else to quit the particular school system. The public, too, will have nothing much to say if it knows that the teacher has been given every opportunity to prove her worth and that she has failed to do so. The great difficulty in dismissing teachers is that the public sympathizes with the teacher, instead of thinking of the child's welfare.

A committee of the National Education Association, appointed to make a study of teachers' tenure, makes the following recommendations regarding the removal of teachers:

During the probationary period there is little question but that the removing power of the board should be strongly preserved. In order that the teaching staff itself may be protected from the danger of weak and incompetent teachers on permanent tenure it is necessary that high standards of entrance requirements be required. It should not only be the duty of the superintendent and supervisors to study the attitudes and abilities of the probationary teachers with great care and exactitude, but the teachers already on tenure should indorse and encourage the continued maintenance of those professional requisites which protect them from being weakened through the accumulation of an incompetent and undesirable element which brings discredit to the profession and which has interfered with the progress of protective measures for the benefit of a large majority of successful teachers already in the service.

The board of education, therefore, should have the right, upon recommendation of the superintendent, to drop any probationary teacher at the end of the school year after a reasonable notice. The notice should not be less than 30 days. The Portland (Oreg.) law provides that a probationary teacher shall not be dismissed simply on account of friction between her and the principal without giving such teacher a fair opportunity with another principal. The teacher might be dropped at any time after a reasonable notice, a notice of not less than 60 days. A written statement signed by the superintendent should be given the teacher, stating the reasons for her dismissal. If the deficiency be due to a lack of skill in classroom management, removal should not be made until the teacher has been warned and an opportunity given to correct the same.

After the probationary period teachers should be removed only for cause. The causes enumerated include one or more of the following: Inefficiency, neglect of duty, professional stagnation, indifference and lack of growth, lack of cooperation, disloyalty, immorality, unprofessional conduct, insubordination, ill health and physical disability, or any other reason that would annul a teacher's certificate. The New York law specifies that the teacher shall hold her position "during good behavior and efficient and competent service." The proposed Ohio law gave neglect of duty, insubordination, conduct unbecoming a teacher, and immoral or criminal conduct as causes for removal. The Pawtucket (R. I.) regulations specify only misconduct or incapacity. The Massachusetts law lists no specific reason.

Teachers may be dismissed at any time for the causes enumerated above. In all cases written notices of charges are necessary, and the teacher is given

an opportunity of a hearing to refute the charges. Pending the hearing the teacher may be suspended, and this suspension is without pay if the charge is sustained. Usually the board of education has the final decision in these matters. New York, New Jersey, and California, however, provide for an appeal to the State superintendent or other authority. Portland, Oreg., provides for appeal by the unique method of a trial board of three appointed by the presiding judge of the circuit court. In all cases where the decision to remove is supported by less than five of the seven members of the board of education an appeal may be taken by the teacher to the commission. The decision of this special commission is final and conclusive. If five of the members of the board vote for removal, no appeal from this decision can be made. A majority of the board can remove.

The questionnaire sent to affiliated units of the National Educational Association indicates that the majority of the teaching organization believe that the hearing should be held before the board of education. Quite a number favor the first hearing before the superintendent and supervisory officials. This group usually believes in an appeal to the local board of education. Those favoring the initial trial before the board or superintendent and board would provide for an appeal to the State superintendent of education for his department. A number of suggestions were made that the trial be held before a joint committee consisting of representatives of the board, the teaching body, and citizens. Another recommendation that a committee of three be substituted consisting of one representing the board or superintendent, another the teacher, and a third to be selected by these two.

Since the board of education is the agency which employs the teacher, it would seem that they should also be the removing agency. The right to employ implies the right to dismiss. The privilege of reviewing the action of the board in dismissing a teacher is a fundamental principle of American democratic justice and a reasonable protection that should be provided. Since the majority of dismissals are based on technical questions, such as neglect of duty, incompetency, inefficiency, conduct unbecoming a teacher, and the like, it seems that the final body of appeal should be in educational work and yet disinterested. Dr. Kandel, of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teachers, states that "the best practice to-day provides for an appeal to the State superintendent of public instruction."

The question of whether the hearings should be public or private is a debatable one, and the committee would request an opportunity to give this more study. The general practice is to have the hearings private, although there seems to be developing a strong tendency to make the matter of privacy optional with the teachers. There are undoubtedly occasions when the nature of the accusations might demand a private hearing in order to protect the teachers, the school system, and the children of the community themselves.

On the other hand, publicity serves as a competent check upon hasty and ill-advised action. It may prove a restraint upon judicious and justifiable dismissals, however, and consequently may work to the detriment of the school organization.

It is a striking fact that the majority of those answering the questionnaire sent to the affiliated organizations of the National Education Association indicated a preference for private hearings. Quite a group, it will be noted, also felt that this privilege should be left to the discretion of the teacher accused, and the hearings be public or private as she requests. It seems that the accusing body should have some right of determination in this matter also, since the advisability of presenting evidence might hinge on the kind of hearing granted. If the first hearing were private and the right of appeal allowed, which would be public or private as the teacher requested, perhaps all rights would be safeguarded.

PREPARATION OF TEACHERS.

Of the 528 cities reporting, 320 require two years of normal-school work in addition to four years of high-school work for teachers in the elementary grades.

Of the 528 cities reporting in regard to the preparation required for high-school positions, 444 require college graduation, and 303 of these require some professional preparation in connection with the college course. The

national committee for the United States Chamber of Commerce in its report ¹⁸ shows for cities of from 8,000 to 30,000 population the median number of years of training above the eighth grade to be as follows: Men elementary teachers, 6.2 years; women elementary teachers, 6.2 years; men junior high school teachers, 7.4 years; women junior high-school teachers, 6.7 years; men senior high-school teachers, 8.4 years; women senior high-school teachers, 8.4 years.

From the foregoing data it is evident that many teachers do not meet what are considered standard requirements, namely, two years of normal-school work in addition to four years of high-school work for elementary teachers and college work with professional training for high-school teachers. Of course some of the teachers in the cities now requiring two years of normal-school work and four years of college work entered the professions some years ago, when the standards were much lower. Every city should, however, require at least two years of normal-school work of all new teachers in the elementary schools and four years of college work with professional courses of all new high-school teachers.

Regarding this point the national committee for the United States Chamber of Commerce says:

There is a difference of two years between the professional training of elementary and high school teachers. The work of the elementary school in forming the habits and ideals of the children is as important as the work of any other school division. The teachers should be as well trained as those of the junior or senior high school. This is not possible unless the salaries are the same for equal training and experience. Some progressive communities have already adopted this policy. It is a safe prediction that in those cities the work of the elementary school will be richer, the children will be kept in school longer, more of them will be attracted by the junior and the senior high school, the general level of a community's intelligence will be raised, and the future well-being of the city more definitely assured.

SELECTION OF TEACHERS.

In 483 of 528 cities reporting, the superintendent nominates teachers; in 228 the nomination is made to a teachers' committee; and in 255 directly to the board of education. Within the past few years the method of selecting teachers has greatly changed. Not many years ago it was the custom of most boards of education to select teachers without even so much as consulting the superintendent. Some boards of education, it is to be regretted, still continue the practice.

This is especially true in those cities where there are many home girls teaching. If most of the teachers come from other places, school boards are usually willing to consult the superintendent regarding the teachers to be appointed.

In those cities where the superintendent does not nominate teachers, the nominations are made by this or that member, or the nominations are most likely made in a meeting of the teachers' committee, which later reports its selection to the entire board. Such a method of selecting teachers is an insult to the superintendent of schools, and he should so consider it, instead of quietly submitting. In those cities where boards of education select teachers without the superintendent's nomination they expect to hold the superintendent responsible for results. If a board selects a second or third rate teacher who has no ability or desire to improve, it should not hold the superintendent for results.

Though most superintendents in the cities reporting nominate teachers, a weakness still obtains, and that is that many have to make their nominations to a teachers' committee. The nominations should be made to the entire board,

¹⁸ Know and Help Your Schools, American City Bureau, New York City.

so that every member of the board may know who is nominated and the qualifications of each nominee.

RULES AND REGULATIONS REGARDING TEACHERS.

No doubt many school boards make too many rules, some of which are foolish, regarding the conduct of teachers in and out of school. It is a pedagogic principle that the best teachers make few rules for the government of their classes. In fact, some excellent teachers make no rules at all, but deal with each case as it comes up. The same principle presumably applies to the making of rules for the government of teachers. A few rules are necessary, so that the teachers may know their relation to the superintendent, supervisors, principal attendance officer, and others. The general opinion is that a school board should not make rules regarding the use of a teacher's time outside of school hours, the important question being whether the teacher gets results. It is always understood that any conduct unbecoming a teacher can not be tolerated, but rules forbidding teachers to attend social affairs should never be adopted. Possibly some teachers give so much time to the "society life" of a community that they are inefficient, but to make a rule that no teacher should attend this or that social affair is a poor solution of the problem. The teachers who are becoming inefficient because of too much social life are the ones for the superintendent and the board to discipline.

The following table, based upon the rules and regulations of 50 of the smaller cities, shows the different duties assigned teachers and the number of school boards specifically assigning these duties:

	School board.
To be at school building a certain number of minutes before the opening of school.....	50
To maintain good order.....	43
Keep daily program posted, and adhere to it.....	31
Keep daily record regarding attendance, etc., of pupils.....	50
Make such reports as are required by the superintendent or the board....	44
See that the class room is well ventilated.....	38
Report neglect of janitors.....	6
Not enter upon social duties that will detract from classroom work.....	5
Adhere strictly to course of study.....	15
Attend teachers' meetings.....	36
Inspect walls, books, etc., from time to time and report condition to superintendent.....	12
Not go out or have callers during the week.....	1
Not leave room when special teachers are giving a lesson.....	12
Be granted leave of absence for a day or two to visit other schools.....	11
Not receive presents from pupils.....	6
Detain pupils for a specified time only.....	29
Not to use corporal punishment.....	5
Report each case of corporal punishment to principal or superintendent...	35
Not to engage in evening-school work or give private lessons unless given special permission.....	2
Not to visit other teachers after pupils begin to arrive.....	25
Not to criticize other teachers.....	1
To take immediate steps to ascertain cause of pupils' absence.....	22
To report misconduct on school premises.....	8
To be present on playgrounds at recess periods.....	8
Not to distribute advertising material or other announcements regarding affairs not connected with the schools.....	22
When expecting to be absent to notify superintendent in due time.....	36
Not to send pupils on errands without consent of principal or superintendent.....	19
Refer all complaints of parents to principal or superintendent.....	22
To be held responsible for neatness of room and care of furniture, books, etc.....	24

To give due notice in case of resignation-----	26
Not to marry during the term-----	3
To become acquainted with rules and regulations of the board-----	46

Several of these rules are ridiculous, as "not to go out or have callers during the week," "not to marry during school term."

RETIREMENT FUND.

Few of the smaller cities outside of States having State retirement funds provide a teacher's retirement fund, partly from the fact that such fund is difficult to provide and administer in the smaller places. The problem of securing proper provision for the teachers' comfort, however, will never be adequately met until a retirement fund, which should be State-wide in scope, is obtained. Without doubt there are few of the smaller city-school systems in which there are not several teachers too old to be retained in the classroom, but they are retained because it seems cruel to dismiss them when they have no other means of support and after they have given years of efficient service. Out of the meager salaries paid, and with the demands steadily becoming more insistent, it is impossible for the teacher to set aside enough, year by year, to keep her in comfort for any length of time after her earning period is passed. No school board should be content until it has not only put the salaries on a reasonable basis, but has made it possible through the establishment of a State retirement fund for every teacher to retire, after becoming too old to teach, on an income sufficient to keep her in comfort.

THE SUBSTITUTE TEACHER.

Many a good classroom of children has been spoiled during a week's absence of the regular classroom teacher because the school board has given no thought as to who should be employed as substitute teachers. The substitute-teacher problem is as serious or even more so than that of the "new" teacher. The new teacher is assigned a definite work, while the substitute teacher is here to-day and there to-morrow. She may be needed one day in the first grade, the next day in the sixth grade, and on the third day in some other grade. Then, too, one day she is sent to teach a class perhaps notoriously difficult to interest and control, while on the next day she may be sent to a more pleasant place, or she may be with one class in the morning and with another in the afternoon. Furthermore, in most instances the need is not known until just a few minutes before the day's session begins, scarcely affording time for the substitute to reach the post assigned her. The consequence is that she has not had time to make that special preparation for the day's work which the regular teacher makes, if she is in earnest, and which is doubly necessary for a substitute if she is to succeed in doing creditable work. Clearly, then, the most difficult position in the entire teaching corps of any city is that of the substitute teacher. She needs versatility, adaptability, intimate knowledge of the entire range of school work, poise, disciplinary ability, and all the other qualities of a good teacher to an even greater degree than that required of the regular teacher who has the same group of children long enough to become familiar with the idiosyncracies of each individual.

In practice, most school systems in the smaller cities employ as substitute teachers almost anybody who can be gotten hold of quickly when needed, and no questions are asked, or, at least, not many—except possibly to inquire whether the person holds a teacher's license.

Those usually employed as substitutes are girls who have just graduated from high school, old ladies who taught years ago but who are willing to accommodate the superintendent by teaching a few days, and housewives in need of a few dollars for pin money. If sufficient remuneration is paid to make the work an inducement, usually a few persons of ability can be found in every city who with sufficient training and close supervision can be brought to a point where, at least, it is better to employ them as substitutes than to dismiss the children. But a better plan is that of selecting a few of the very best teachers of the regular corps and relieving them entirely of assignment to a given class, thereby securing a "flying corps," to be shifted quickly from point to point as the emergency arises. Such teachers, instead of being paid less than regular teachers, should be paid considerably more in recognition of their superior ability and the difficulty of the work. In fact, this plan can not be put into operation unless more is paid, since none of the regular teachers would consent to be substitutes without more pay. They all know the difficulties that the substitute teacher encounters.

These substitutes should be employed on full time, and when no substituting is needed they should be sent into various schools to give observation lessons for weak teachers or for teachers who are new to the work and need help which the supervisor has no time to give. Or if the principals are teaching principals, the substitute teachers may relieve the principals at times. Again, they may be assigned to a given grade for a day or two so as to give the regular teacher a much-needed opportunity of visiting classes in her own or in neighboring cities.

THE TEACHER AS AN ADVISER.

If a superintendent or a school board consults a few teachers regarding school policies, difficulties are apt to arise, and the whole administrative machinery may be thrown out of gear. It is difficult for a school board to know which teachers to consult. The only democratic way is to consult them all. Some superintendents and school boards have realized that the intelligence of the whole teaching body should be capitalized and that it is unwise to consult only a few teachers. They have, therefore, encouraged the organization of teachers' councils. In some instances such councils have been organized only after considerable parleying with school officials. Much better results could be expected if the teachers were invited to offer their opinions upon matters that vitally concern the schools.

To autocratic boards and superintendents the claim of teachers to be heard in board meetings seems radical. What right, it is asked, have teachers to ask to be consulted? The school board is responsible to the people, not to the teachers, and therefore must formulate all policies. It is replied that no right is taken away from the board, for its province is to legislate, and it should do so with all the light available. No right of the superintendent is abrogated, for he, too, should make his recommendations only upon the fullest information possible.

If a teachers' council attempts to usurp the prerogatives of a board or of a superintendent, it has no excuse for existing. It is generally recognized that the function of a council should be as follows: To secure active and effective direction of the schools by affording the largest opportunities for initiative on the part of teachers in the formulation of courses of study and in the selection of textbooks; to encourage professional interests and to furnish a ready and effective means for the expression of sentiments and opinions with reference to questions of school policy.

Superintendents and boards that have recognized teachers' councils report generally that the conferences of the members of the council and administrative officials bring great help to the latter. One superintendent says that the educational council has been of more help to him than to the teachers, that it keeps him in touch with them, and that he is thus able to know their opinions upon various matters. In other words, this superintendent is given a broader view of school affairs by those who are closest to the children. A teacher of children knows the weak points of the course of study; she knows whether the textbooks in use are well adapted to the children in her grade. Granting that the opinion of a single teacher might not be worth much, the combined opinions of the entire teaching corps are certainly worthy of consideration.

Whatever course teachers' councils may take, it should be remembered that the school board and the superintendent are the final authorities representing the public and that teachers legally have no legislative functions. School boards and superintendents should, however, utilize the first-hand knowledge that teachers have of school conditions.

SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION.

One of the difficult problems that many superintendents in the smaller cities are called upon to solve is that of providing adequate and economical supervision of instruction. They must decide how many supervisors and how many teachers and nonteaching principals there should be in proportion to the number of teachers employed. No general rule can be laid down. In practice, however, there are in cities of between 10,000 and 30,000 population one supervisor, not including the superintendent of schools, to every 30 teachers, and one principal teaching not more than half time to every 26 teachers; and in cities of between 5,000 and 10,000 population there is one supervisor to every 28 teachers and one principal not teaching more than half time to every 39 teachers.

The usual plans for securing supervision in small cities are: (1) A supervising, or nonteaching, principal for each building; (2) a principal to supervise three or four buildings; (3) a primary and a grammar grade supervisor for the entire city; (4) departmental teaching in the grammar grades so that the principal may be free a few periods of the day for supervision; (5) a substitute teacher to relieve teaching principals so that they may supervise for a day or half day a week.

The plan to be followed depends upon conditions. In cities having buildings of 16 or more rooms each, the best plan is to have a supervising principal for each building, but in cities having small buildings of 8 or 10 rooms each it is very doubtful whether a board of education can justify the expenditure necessary to employ a supervisory principal for each building. If, for instance, there are six school buildings of 10 rooms each, and if there is a supervising principal in charge of each building, the cost of such supervision would be about \$12,000 a year, while the cost of instruction would be about \$75,000. If to the \$12,000 there be added \$5,000 for the salary of the superintendent of schools and \$6,000 for supervisors of the special subjects, the total cost of supervision would be \$23,000, or about one-third of the amount expended for instruction. It would seem in this hypothetical case that too much is spent on the supervisory force in proportion to the amount spent for teaching.

The plan of dividing a city into districts each containing several small buildings and of employing a supervising principal for each district, while not ideal, has been made effective in some cities.

A better plan where there are so many small buildings that a supervising principal can not be placed in charge of each is to employ a primary and a grammar grade supervisor for the entire city. Whether or not both a primary and a grammar grade supervisor should be employed depends, of course, upon the size of the city. In a city employing from 40 to 70 elementary-school teachers, a primary supervisor would be sufficient, as this would leave only the grammar grades to be supervised by the superintendent. In cities employing more than 70 elementary teachers, good use could be made of both a primary and a grammar grade supervisor if there are no supervising principals. If the grammar grades are centralized in one building, the principal should be free most of the time for the purpose of supervising the instruction.

Since the tendency is to erect larger elementary-school buildings so as to reduce the number of small buildings, thereby making the schools more efficient, the problem of supervision can be solved by placing a supervising principal in charge of each building. In most cities having only 20 or 25 elementary teachers all the children could be housed in one building, thus making it possible for the superintendent to do all the supervisory work; that is, if he is provided with clerical assistance.

In the cities that have supervising principals or teaching principals in charge of each of the elementary schools or of a group of elementary schools, everything possible should be done to economize the principal's time, so that he may be free to give practically all of it to supervision, or if he has to teach so that he may give his attention to his classes without being interrupted by telephone calls, which in many school systems require much of the principal's time to answer. These calls are permitted to come at any moment, and if the principal is visiting a classroom, he must leave to answer the telephone, or if teaching he must leave his class. This nuisance has been lessened to a certain extent in some schools by appointing a pupil to answer the telephone, but in a majority of cases the principal himself is wanted by some parent or other person.

To eliminate this evil telephones in the school buildings should be connected only with the superintendent's office. Parents should have no direct telephone connection with the school buildings except through the superintendent's office, where a clerk should attend to all calls. Principals are also interrupted at almost any time in the day by visits from parents and others in regard to this or that matter, often of little consequence; so, in order to lessen this evil, there should be a regular office hour agreed upon by the principals and the superintendent, which should be the same for all elementary schools, and should be printed in the report cards and periodically sent home to parents so that it may become fixed in the minds of the parents that the principals may be seen only at certain times in the day.

In cities employing 30 or more elementary and high-school teachers and having a high-school enrollment of 100 or more, the high-school principal should not be required to teach all the time. One of the weaknesses of most high schools is a lack of constructive supervision. Too often each high-school teacher goes her own sweet way without considering how her work relates to that of the other teachers. Supervision is needed in every high school to help coordinate the work of the several departments, to secure more uniformity in marking pupils, and to secure better classroom methods of instruction.

Supervision of the so-called special subjects is a misnomer in most of the smaller cities. Though called supervisors, they are nothing but peripatetic teachers of music, art, and other subjects. By teaching a class once every two weeks or once a week they can accomplish little unless the regular classroom teacher is able to give additional instruction in these subjects. The supervisor

should do more supervising and require more teaching of these subjects on the part of the regular teacher. If the supervisor or special teacher, as she is sometimes called, does all the teaching, the regular teacher will feel no responsibility, saying, "That is the work of the supervisor of music or art." In a certain school that had employed a supervisor of penmanship for many years the scores made by the children in penmanship revealed that it was below average. When the cause was sought for the rather poor showing as compared with other cities where no supervisors of penmanship were employed it was discovered that the teachers depended almost entirely upon the supervisor for results. If this supervisor had supervised and held the teachers responsible, the results would without doubt have been better. In some cities where there are special teachers of music the results are poor because the teachers have few or no music lessons between the dates of the music teacher's visits.

The problem of teaching the special subjects may be solved by organizing the school so that the pupils from the first grade up have their recitations in arithmetic, history, geography, and the other older subjects with one teacher and report to special teachers in other rooms for music, drawing, physical training, and the other newer subjects. If an arrangement of the kind is made, the overhead charge of special supervision is eliminated. At Sewickley, Pa., for example, a few years ago the superintendent of schools after a visit to Gary, Ind., was convinced that he could introduce play, manual training, and home economics without employing supervisors of those subjects; so a program was arranged whereby the regular classroom teachers are kept occupied while pupils are receiving instruction in manual training and home economics, and while they are on the play ground. To do this the work is departmentalized throughout the grades; that is, there are special teachers for music, drawing, manual training, home economics, and play. All the older subjects, as arithmetic, geography, and history, are taught by the regular classroom teacher. The superintendent of schools says:

With the change of school organization from the inflexible one-room unit to the present flexible interdependable condition came manual training, domestic science, and physical training. Ordinarily, the introduction of these departments would have meant additional instructors. However, the plan operated without any change in the number of the staff. This was a downright economy in teaching force as well as enrichment of the program content.

GRADING AND PROMOTION OF PUPILS.

Various arrangements for the individual child's progress through the grades unhindered and unhurried by others are matters of study and experiment at the present time, notwithstanding the fact that ever since pupils have been classified by grades their promotion has been a subject for discussion in every school system.

A promotion system is primarily a means of giving each pupil the best chance for scholastic progress in accordance with his individual needs and capacities, consistent with the necessities of class instruction, which is the basis of most teaching, whatever may or may not be its merits. This being the case, there is need of good workable promotion machinery, so that the good of the individual pupil's progress is not lost sight of in the administration exigencies of an orderly grade organization.

A considerable number of plans for improving the promotion machinery have been offered and variously tried. The principles underlying them may perhaps be classified as follows:

1. Shorter promotion intervals; that is, at least semiannually instead of annually. This eases up the application of the promotion system.
2. Freer promotion of individuals whenever they seem capable of doing higher work, at other than the regular promotion times.
3. Promotion by subject. This has been generally adopted for departmentalized work, but sparingly otherwise.
4. The provision for a supplementary or review term, a semester or less, at intervals in the course of study, which can be skipped by the better students, while the poorer ones use it to clear up shortcomings.
5. Two or more parallel series of classes, or sections within a class proceeding at different rates, permitting a closer classification of pupils or a rate of progress as well as a state of attainment basis, and so interlocking that pupils can shift from a fast to a slow class or vice versa at various points.
6. Division of the class into two or more groups, constant or varying, which are conceived not so much as having different speeds of progress through the curriculum but as varying in the amount of grade work which they attempt beyond an essential minimum requirement. Part of the class work may be done as a single class whole, and other parts in various groups according to capacity of pupils in these lines.
7. Individual attention, supplementing class work, by which can be secured such results as special help for weaker students, reduced programs for those who can not handle all the subjects simultaneously at the regular grade speed, shifting of time from a pupil's strong subject that does not need it to his weak subject that does, and added advance work for those aiming to skip a grade.
8. Individual attention to the extent of having each pupil proceed at his own rate, with a minimum of organization as a class.

Most of the various plans, with the exception of semiannual and subject promotions in departmentalized work, are much less practiced than we would be led to expect from the claims with which they have been heralded. Most of these schemes come and go. The celebrated Cambridge double-track plan has been modified beyond recognition. The Pueblo plan emphasized the importance of the individual so effectively that all school men took notice, but as an exclusive system it is doubtful whether it can be found in operation anywhere. In brief, all these plans have made their contributions and now appear only as elements in other plans.

The reason that none of these schemes have been universally adopted, and that they have been modified so as to be unrecognizable, may be explained by several practical difficulties. Some of the plans for convenient operation need larger school buildings than prevail in the smaller cities. Some of them are rather too complicated from the administrative side to be successfully handled unless the administrator is particularly well qualified and is thoroughly interested in the scheme in view. From the teacher's standpoint also there are complications and demands for special skill; and with some of the plans there are such faults as the superficial speeding of bright pupils and confusion in class management. These faults may not be inherent in the plans themselves, but they are likely to appear when the plans are applied by teachers who do not understand them. Many an apparently good plan fails when not skillfully handled. Any of the foregoing plans must be handled by experts or they fail. They make more problems for the superintendent and teacher. The nearer a system comes to the lock-step system of promotion, the easier it is for the teacher and superintendent. One superintendent somewhat naively calls attention to the fact that since special classes and sections were formed in his school there are more questions coming up that he must decide. The old annual lock-step

system of promotion caused little vexation of spirit in the superintendent; much in the children. Fortunately for the children, in many of the smaller cities conditions are becoming reversed, but after all the discussion regarding the advantages of semiannual promotions only 245, or 47 per cent of the superintendents reporting, promote pupils semiannually.

The obvious advantage of the semiannual over the annual promotion plan is that pupils who fail of promotion have to repeat only a half year's work. On the other hand there are 16 opportunities for failure in the elementary schools promoting semiannually and only 8 in schools promoting annually.

Dr. Leonard P. Ayres,¹⁶ discussing annual and semiannual promotions, says that from a purely mathematical point of view the change from annual to semiannual promotion in a school system—

has no effect whatever on the average progress rate of the children. If, for example, 80 per cent of all the children are promoted every time, it makes no difference in the average progress of the whole group whether the promotions take place once a year or 10 times a year. But while the average progress of children is not changed, their distribution through the different grades is materially affected.

If 100 children are promoted annually at a steady 80 per cent rate for eight years we shall find them distributed through the grades as follows: Fourth grade, 3 children; fifth grade, 11 children; sixth grade, 27 children; seventh grade, 38 children; eighth grade, 21 children; total 100.

If the promotions take place semiannually instead of annually, the distribution of these 100 children at the end of the eight years will be as follows: Grade 5B, 3 children; 6A, 10 children; 6B, 19 children; 7A, 26 children; 7B, 24 children; 8A, 14 children; 8B, 4 children; total, 100.

The difference between the two distributions is marked. Under the annual system 21 children have completed the eighth grade, while under the semiannual system only 4 have completed it. On the other hand the annual system has left 3 children in the fourth grade, while the semiannual one has left none lower than the 5B grade. The annual system has carried more children through on schedule time but left more back in the grades, while the semiannual system has carried fewer all the way through but left fewer badly retarded. The annual system has resulted in better conditions for the few, while the semiannual one has bettered them for the many.

Classification of pupils in half-year grades has not remedied the evil of classifying together pupils of widely different attainments. In many schools the bright, the average, and the slow are assigned to the same half-year grade and all taught by the same teacher. Just as in any other scheme where children of all degrees of ability and attainment are classified together, the lesson is too long for some and too short for others. The best pupils in the class are not tried to the full extent of their ability; the poorest pupils are strained to the utmost. At the close of the semester the pupils who fail must repeat a half year's work. The effect of this is bad.

But wherein lies the remedy? In cities where there are small school buildings promotion at half-year intervals is about all that is possible, but in cities where the school buildings are large enough to permit of several rooms for each grade it is possible to divide the school into classes separated by intervals of five or six weeks' work.

If there are three first-grade teachers in a school building, it would be possible to form at least six classes, or even nine, based on the ability of the children, which could be determined by mental tests and by trial in the classroom.

In a certain school system in a city of about 10,000 population there are five first-grade, four second-grade, four third-grade, and three fourth-grade teachers in the same building; but no attempt is made to classify the children so that

¹⁶Ayres, Leonard P. The Effect of Promotion Rates on School Efficiency. In *Am. Sch. Bd. Jour.*, May, 1913, p. 9.

there will be only an interval of a few weeks' work between each class. All the first-grade children are assigned the same work, and all are expected to complete the same amount during the half-year term. Those who do not must repeat the half-year's work. If the children were divided into groups, there would be only about four weeks between two groups, so that whenever a pupil could not maintain himself in his group, he could be placed in the next lower, and whenever a pupil showed that he could work more rapidly than his group, he could be advanced to the next higher group. If a pupil had to remain out of school for a month, he could upon his return start in just where he left off. Some pupils could complete more than the first grade and do part of the second.

Dr. W. T. Harris, formerly United States Commissioner of Education, writing of the plan of classifying pupils with an interval of a few weeks between classes, says :

Instead of the Procrustean bed of grades, the pupils should be classified into classes of 30 or less each. These classes in all large schools should be separated by intervals of about five weeks' work. As often as these classes, any of them, become too small by the withdrawal of pupils, or too large by the assignment to them of newcomers, there should be a new formation of classes. The best pupils of one class should be sent up to the next, the best from the next below should be promoted and joined with the pupils remaining. Those not promoted are now united with the best of the class that is five weeks' work behind them. * * * This process of continual readjustment of classification * * * will render the whole school system elastic and mobile. Like the current of a river, there will be everywhere forward motion—in the middle the current is more rapid, at the sides the current flows more slowly. The work of the grade laid down for a year's study will be accomplished in three or three and a half quarters by the brightest; by the dullest and slowest in five quarters. There will be no temptation to push on a slow pupil or drag him beyond his powers; no temptation to promote a pupil to a new grade's work before thoroughly completing what is below him.

It may be urged that this system would cause a collection of the dull and stupid pupils into classes by themselves and of bright pupils into classes by themselves. This, however, does not happen. The fact is that the best pupils from below are allowed to rise through the masses above them as fast as their ability can carry them. "The stream of bright pupils from below is inexhaustible. From the primary grades it ascends, continually passing fixed points to points that move on more slowly. 'In every class there will be its quota of bright pupils, some leading the class and some just sustaining themselves in it, having recently joined it.'" In a system that gives no attention to the grouping of children except to have them in classes a half year apart, all the bright children attain the top of the class and mark time and the slow ones fall hopelessly to the bottom long before promotion time and await promotion day, when they will be turned back to go over the same road again. It is recognized, however, that the plan is practicable only in buildings where there are several teachers for the same grade, so that the 80 or more children may be divided into four or more groups.

The plan of grouping children according to ability, whether there are short or long intervals between classes, is becoming more common. Of 520 superintendents replying to the question, If there are enough elementary-school children of any one grade in a building to form two or more rooms, are the children divided into groups according to ability? 297 answered in the affirmative. The methods of ascertaining ability are mental and standard educational tests and the teacher's opinion based upon the children's class work.

RATE OF PROMOTION.

The rate of promotion varies greatly in different cities. Some promote only 75 per cent of their pupils, while others promote 95 per cent. Just what per

cent of the pupils should be promoted in cities having semiannual or annual promotions? An annual promotion rate of 95 per cent comes nearer a theoretical rate than does 75 per cent, for if the promotion rate is 75 per cent year after year, 867 out of 1,000 children entering the first grade would fail in eight years; with a promotion rate as high as 95 per cent, 302 children out of 1,000 would fail.

The following table shows the effects of different annual promotion rates in a school system, assuming that none die or drop out:¹

Effects of annual promotion rates.

Promotion rate.	Years required for average child to complete 8 grades.	Failures among each 1,000 children in 8 years.	Children in each 1,000 failing in 8 years.	Per cent of children above normal age for grades.
100	8.00	0	0	0
99	8.08	70	68	3.4
98	8.16	140	132	6.7
97	8.24	210	192	9.9
96	8.33	280	249	12.9
95	8.42	350	302	15.9
94	8.50	420	352	18.7
93	8.60	490	398	21.4
92	8.69	560	442	24.0
91	8.78	630	483	26.4
90	8.89	700	522	28.8
89	8.98	770	558	31.1
88	9.09	840	591	33.3
87	9.19	910	623	35.4
86	9.30	980	652	37.4
85	9.41	1,050	679	39.4
84	9.52	1,120	705	41.2
83	9.63	1,190	729	43.0
82	9.75	1,260	751	44.8
81	9.87	1,330	771	46.4
80	10.00	1,400	790	48.0
79	10.12	1,470	808	49.5
78	10.27	1,540	824	51.0
77	10.38	1,610	840	52.4
76	10.52	1,680	854	53.7
75	10.66	1,750	867	55.0

In practice the average promotion rate in the smaller cities is about 90 per cent, judging from the rates of promotion in 38 typical school systems in different sections of the country. The following table shows the per cent promoted by grades in the 38 cities:

Per cent promoted in each grade, 38 cities combined.

Grade.	Per cent promoted of number in grade at close of term.	Per cent promoted on total enrollment for term.
1.....	84.6	77.9
2.....	91.2	87.5
3.....	92.3	84.9
4.....	92.4	86.8
5.....	90.8	87.4
6.....	91.4	85.0
7.....	90.3	84.7
8.....	91.5	84.9
Average for 100,000 children.....	90.1	85.1

¹ Ayres, Leonard P. The Effect of Promotion Rates on School Efficiency. In Am. Sch. Bd. Jour., May, 1913, p. 10.

Possibly a 100 per cent promotion rate would be the best. As it is, a teacher in any grade must decide whether her pupils have completed the work of the grade. If in her judgment they have, they are sent on to the next grade; if they have not, they repeat the grade. The receiving teacher has nothing to say in the matter. It might be a good plan to promote all the pupils and then let the teacher who receives them decide what ones can do the work of her grade. This suggestion is made in view of the fact that an experiment conducted at Springfield and Decatur, Ill., shows that in these two cities all the children can be promoted to their advantage.

The plan is for each teacher to make up the usual list of pupils she would recommend for promotion and for failure. The pupils marked for failure are advanced to the next higher grade, but on probation, and are subjected to a regimen carefully devised and frequently checked up with a view to stimulating the pupils, the parents, and the teachers to increased efforts.

At the close of the first semester of 1918-19 in the two cities 1,276 pupils were listed for failure. This was before the teacher knew that the children were to be promoted on condition. As a result of the experiment, it was found that over 75 per cent maintained themselves in the grade to which they had been provisionally advanced.

This procedure was repeated in June, at the close of the second semester, when 881 pupils who would ordinarily have failed were provisionally promoted. The next fall these children began the work in the grades to which they were advanced, and 75 per cent of them made good. The experiment was tried for the third time when 984 pupils were placed on probation in the grade above. This time about 60 per cent maintained themselves.

The question may be asked, How many of the pupils promoted on probation came up again for provisional promotion? Of the original 1,276 probationers, 1,087 did not again become probationers.

From these and other data it is evident that the experiment has thus far been successful in these two cities. The plan is at least worth a trial in other places.

THE EXAMINATION.

The formal examination held at stated times has fallen into disrepute as a means of determining whether pupils are to be promoted or not, but a few school superintendents still use the examination to determine fitness of promotion.

The examination as a means of determining a pupil's fitness for promotion has been discontinued by progressive-school superintendents because it leads to "cramming," to undue worry and nervousness, and to working with the sole end in view of passing, causing the entire work of the school to center about the one idea.

It is the custom in many schools to average the examination marks and the classroom marks or to depend entirely upon the classroom grades.

The investigations made regarding teachers' marks show that these marks are inaccurate and unreliable records of the performance or ability or accomplishment of pupils, and that the faith which both pupils and teachers have placed in traditional systems of marking is a blind, unreasoning one.

It may be asked, What is the teacher rating? Is it the performance of a pupil in a certain examination, without any consideration of the pupil's ability? Is it the improvement, the purpose, the accomplishment, the accuracy, the neatness, the acquisition of knowledge, or what? What does it mean for a pupil to receive a mark of 80 per cent? Eighty per cent of what? Of what the teacher thinks the child should know? Thus it is evident that there can be no

absolutely correct way of marking pupils, all depending upon the teacher, her standards, her moods, etc.

A plan based upon the normal distribution of ability is recommended by several persons who have made studies of teachers' marks. The plan is for the teacher to pick out from 3 to 10 per cent of her class who are excellent, and to place the others in four or five groups with respect to these. As Bennett says:¹⁷ "We can not presume to state how much ability a pupil has, nor how valuable his work has been, but we can state his relative standing in the class with reasonable accuracy."

One study¹⁸ recommends a marking system based on the following distribution of the individuals of a given class: Three per cent, excellent; 21 per cent, superior; 45 per cent, medium; 19 per cent, inferior; and 12 per cent, very poor. Of this last group, approximately 11 per cent should be conditioned and 1 per cent failed, it is asserted.

The conclusions reached by some other studies are shown in the following table:

Distribution of pupils' marks according to several investigators.

	A	B	C	D	E
	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
Cattell.....	10	20	40	20	10
Smith.....	10	15	50	15	10
Ruediger.....	4	24	44	24	4
Meyer.....	4	21	50	18	7
Foster.....	3	22	50	22	3
Dearborn.....	2	23	50	23	2
Gray.....	7	20	42	21	7
Cajori.....	7	24	38	24	7
Starch:					
Elementary.....	10	39	39	8	4
Advanced.....	14	44	33	6.5	2.5

Although there are differences of opinion, they fall within the range of variation of a flexible system. Such a scale might be stated as follows: Of the total number of marks given, let the A's comprise from 3 to 12 per cent, the B's from 15 to 25 per cent, the C's from 40 to 50 per cent, the D's from 15 to 25 per cent, and the E's or failures from 2 to 12 per cent.

Bennett¹⁹ proposes the following:

A very satisfactory plan and one which has proved easy to use is to let A mean "one of the best quarter" of the class; let B mean "one of the second best quarter"; let C mean all the others who have done a passing quality of work; and let D mean that the work so marked is not acceptable or up to passing requirements. It should not be the policy of the school arbitrarily to require any to fail; therefore, abundant notice, special instruction, and frequent reclassification should eliminate D's from the final marks.

Such plans as the foregoing are based upon two assumptions:

1. That the work of a given grade and the standards demanded therein shall be so shaped that the large majority of the class shall at all times be doing work of a passing grade.

2. That in every class the normal distribution of ability is approximately the same.

If such plans were adopted in graded schools there would not be the wide variations in standards of promotion that are found in the same school systems

¹⁷ Bennett, Henry E. *School Efficiency*. Ginn & Co., 1917.

¹⁸ Finkelstein, I. E. *The Marking System in Theory and Practice*. Warwick & York, Baltimore, 1913.

¹⁹ Bennett, Henry E. *School Efficiency*. Ginn & Co., 1917.

and even in the same buildings. One teacher may have 40 per cent of her children marked "A," while another teacher in the same building teaching the same grade may have only 5 per cent marked "A" and 40 per cent marked "C." Under the foregoing plan in operation it is evident that each class itself would virtually determine its own standard by which the individual member shall be judged in respect to promotion.

ACCOUNTING, RECORDS, AND REPORTS.

In many of the smaller cities but little attention is given to fiscal school accounting. Bills are paid and the secretary of the school board makes no classification of expenditures for fuel, light, janitor supplies, pupil supplies, etc.; so at the close of the school year it is a difficult matter for him to make out the fiscal reports called for by the State department of public instruction or the United States Bureau of Education, and as an aid in the administration of the schools his system of accounting is practically worthless.

In order that accounting may aid in economical administration the accounts should be so kept that the cost per pupil of each school building and each school department as kindergarten, elementary, junior high, and senior high schools may be determined. If this is done, extravagance in the use of supplies, etc., in any building or department may be detected. If, for example, the cost of textbooks or pupil supplies in an elementary school building is much above the average for the city, an investigation would reveal the cause. If a school board keeps its accounts to show the cost of fuel per 1,000 cubic feet in each building, variations from the mean unit cost of the system and of other neighboring city-school systems can be detected. In a small city that had no accounting system the superintendent had the board introduce a cost-account system, which revealed that the cost of fuel per 1,000 cubic feet in school No. 1 was \$1.57; in school No. 2, \$1.52; in school No. 3, \$2.49; in school No. 4, \$1.82; and in school No. 5, \$1.57. The board made an investigation to determine why fuel in school No. 3 cost per 1,000 cubic feet so much more than the average for the city. They discovered that the furnace needed repairing and that the janitor did not know how to fire properly. Without such an accounting system, which also showed the cost per unit of 1,000 cubic feet each month in the year, the waste in the one building would in all probability never have been discovered.

If the cost per student hour in each high-school subject were obtained, there would no doubt be startling surprises in some school systems. Where one high-school subject costs five times the amount of another the fact must be explained. Indeed, there may be no satisfactory explanation, yet without comparing the student hour cost of different high-school subjects, a superintendent may not realize that certain subjects are being overemphasized, and that he could so organize his school as to reduce the student hour-cost of a certain subject costing five or six times as much as other subjects. For instance, in one small city school system the cost of Latin instruction in the third and fourth years is 55 cents per student recitation, and in other subjects about 9 cents per pupil recitation. A superintendent who is not wholly blind to the fact that relative values should be considered can not help asking whether Latin is worth six times as much as the other subjects. Possibly few superintendents can be made to realize how much more emphasis they are placing on some subjects until the cost of each subject is reduced to a per-student recitation basis.

Several years ago the superintendent of schools at Newton, Mass., where the cost of each pupil recitation in the high schools was ascertained, discovered that 5.9 pupil recitations in Greek cost the same as 23.8 pupil recitations in French, that 12 pupil recitations in science were equivalent in cost to 19.2 pupil recitations in English, and that it takes 41.7 pupil recitations in vocal music to equal the cost of 13.9 pupil recitations in art. The superintendent, commenting on these facts, said:

Thus confronted, do we feel like denying the equivalency of these values? We can not deny our responsibility for fixing them as they are. That is a wholesome feeling, if it leads to a wiser assignment of values in the future. Greater wisdom in these assignments will come, not by reference to any supposedly fixed and inherent values in these subjects themselves, but from a study of local conditions and needs. I know nothing about the absolute value of a recitation in Greek as compared with a recitation in French or English. I am convinced, however, by very concrete and quite local considerations that when the obligations of the present year expire we ought to purchase no more Greek instruction at the rate of 5.9 pupil recitations for a dollar. The price must go down or we shall invest in something else.

The foregoing examples are given to call attention to the fact that cost accounting helps a superintendent to decide whether or not certain activities should be continued. For instance, in the school where Latin in the third and fourth year costs six times as much as the other subjects, the superintendent should ponder whether or not he should continue to offer the subject after the second year, especially in view of the fact that other valuable subjects are not included in the high-school curriculum.

In order to keep school accounts systematically, superintendents of schools in the smaller cities should persuade their boards of education to adopt a system of bookkeeping based upon the classification of receipts and expenditures recommended several years ago by the Department of Superintendents of the National Education Association. The schedule recommended is as follows:

PAYMENTS.

I. EXPENSES (COST OF CONDUCTING SCHOOL SYSTEM).

	Total.	Salaries.	Other objects.
EXPENSES OF GENERAL CONTROL (OVERHEAD CHARGES).			
1. Board of education and secretary's office.....
2. School elections and school census.....
3. Finance offices and accounts.....
4. Legal services.....
5. Operation and maintenance of office building.....
6. Offices in charge of buildings and supplies.....
.....
7. Office of superintendent of schools.....
8. Enforcement of compulsory education and truancy laws.....
9. Other expenses of general control.....
10. Total.....

	Total.	Schools and special activities.						
		Day schools.		Evening schools.		Vocational schools.	Special schools.	Special activities.
		Elementary, including kindergarten.	Secondary (high).	Elementary.	Secondary.			
EXPENSES OF INSTRUCTION.								
11. Salaries of supervisors of grades and subjects.....								
12. Other expenses of supervisors.....								
13. Salaries of principals and their clerks.....								
14. Other expenses of principals.....								
15. Salaries of teachers.....								
16. Textbooks.....								
17. Stationery and supplies used in instruction.....								
18. Other expenses of instruction.....								
19. Total.....								
EXPENSES OF OPERATION OF SCHOOL PLANT.								
20. Wages of janitors and other employees.....								
21. Fuel.....								
22. Water.....								
23. Light and power.....								
24. Janitor's supplies.....								
25. Other expenses of operation of school plant.....								
26. Total.....								
EXPENSES OF MAINTENANCE OF SCHOOL PLANT.								
27. Repair of buildings and upkeep of grounds.....								
28. Repair and replacement of equipment.....								
29. Insurance.....								
30. Other expenses of maintenance of school plant.....								
31. Total.....								
EXPENSES OF AUXILIARY AGENCIES.								
LIBRARIES.								
32. Salaries.....								
33. Books.....								
34. Other expenses.....								
PROMOTION OF HEALTH.								
35. Salaries.....								
36. Other expenses.....								
TRANSPORTATION OF PUPILS.								
37. Salaries.....								
38. Other expenses.....								
39. Total.....								
MISCELLANEOUS EXPENSES.								
40. Payments to private schools.....								
41. Payments to schools of other civil divisions.....								
42. Care of children in institutions.....								
43. Pensions.....								
44. Rent.....								
45. Other miscellaneous expenses.....								
46. Total.....								

II. OUTLAYS (CAPITAL ACQUISITION AND CONSTRUCTION).

	Total.	Schools and special activities.					
		Day schools.		Evening schools.		Vocational schools.	Special schools.
		Elementary, including kindergarten.	Secondary (high).	Elementary.	Secondary.		Special activities.
47. Land.....							
48. New buildings.....							
49. Alteration of old buildings.....							
50. Equipment of new buildings and grounds.....							
51. Equipment of old buildings, exclusive of replacements.....							
52. Total.....							

III. OTHER PAYMENTS.

53. Redemption of bonds.....	\$.....
54. Redemption of short-term loans.....
55. Payment of warrants and orders of preceding year.....
56. Payments to sinking funds.....
57. Payments of interest.....
58. Miscellaneous payments, including payments to trust funds, textbooks to be sold to pupils, etc.....
59. Total.....
60. Balances at close of year at.....	\$.....
61. Total payments and balances.....

RECEIPTS.

REVENUE RECEIPTS.

62. Subventions and grants from State.....	\$.....
63. Subventions and grants from county.....
64. Subventions and grants from other civil divisions.....
65. Appropriations from city treasury.....
66. General property taxes.....
67. Business taxes (licenses, excise taxes, taxes on corporations, taxes on occupations, etc.).....
68. Poll taxes.....
69. Fines and penalties.....
70. Rents and interest.....
71. Tuition and other fees from patrons.....
72. Transfers from other districts in payment of tuition.....
73. All other revenue.....
74. Total revenue receipts.....

NONREVENUE RECEIPTS.

75. Loans and bond sales.....	\$.....
76. Warrants issued and unpaid.....
77. Sales of real property and proceeds of insurance adjustments.....
78. Sales of equipment and supplies.....
79. Refund of payments.....
80. Other nonrevenue receipts.....
81. Total nonrevenue receipts.....
82. Total receipts.....
83. Balances at beginning of year.....
84. Total receipts and balances.....

Class of buildings.	Total value of sites, buildings, and equipment.	Value of sites and buildings.	Value of equipment.	Interest on value of school plant.
General control				
Elementary schools				
Secondary schools				
Normal schools				
Schools for the industries				
Special schools				

Bookkeeping blanks based upon the distribution of expenditures may be had from several publishing houses. The following shows kind of blank that the clerk of the school board should use in keeping his accounts in accordance with the foregoing schedule:

[illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible]

School boards that have been keeping accounts in accordance with these forms report that their accounting has been much simplified and has become more accurate and more valuable for administrative purposes, since they are now able to compare their expenses item by item with other cities. Any school system that bases its accounting upon these forms can present practically all the data needed for the purpose of aiding in administrative control. Besides keeping accounts to show unit costs, as previously suggested, the secretary of the school board should at the end of each month be able to show the true financial condition of the school district, presenting a statement of all assets and liabilities. He should also present for each item appropriated a statement of the amount on hand at the beginning of the fiscal year, the amount received since the beginning of the year, and the total received to date, the amount expended since the beginning of the fiscal year, the amount expended during the present month, and total expenditures. He should include with the statement the amount contracted for during the balance of the year, the fixed charges, total, and the balance available.

A property statement or invoice should be rendered once a year. This would include the value of grounds, buildings, equipment, books, and supplies.

In brief, small city schools can not become as efficient as they should until they adopt some accounting system showing the disposal of every cent appropriated from the time it is collected from the taxpayer to the time it is paid out for some service.

There are many things about the schools other than about the finance that the school board, the superintendent, and the public need to know if the schools are to be administered so that they will constantly increase in efficiency. In a school system that is steadily improving in the quality of its work one will find that some of the things happening are:

1. From year to year the school system will enroll a larger percentage of the children of school age and will carry them further along in the grades before they drop out.

2. The number of over-age pupils and of pupils who are making slow progress through school will decrease.

3. There will be fewer and fewer failures in promotion, and fewer will drop out of school because they become discouraged and disheartened in their work.

4. There will be much greater regularity in school attendance and fewer absences.

5. There will be a decrease in the number of pupils per teacher until a reasonable limit has been reached.

6. Teachers' qualifications will be advancing steadily, and the conditions under which they live and work will increasingly make for a more stabilized teaching force.

7. When pupils do leave school it will be known why, and in the light of this information the work of the schools will be shaped to meet their needs better.

8. Pupils will be followed up after they leave school in order to determine wherein their training could have been improved.

9. Information will be compiled systematically about what other school systems are doing in order that the system in question may profit by the experience of others elsewhere.

Among the facts that should always be at hand in the superintendent's office, in order that the school authorities may determine for themselves as to whether the system has been steadily improving or steadily declining, are the following:

1. The number of children at different ages in the city and the number in school, both public and private.
2. The number of compulsory attendance age in and out of school.
3. The number above compulsory attendance age in and out of school.
4. The ratio of pupils above compulsory attendance age to those of compulsory age. Changes in ratio.
5. Number of pupils for each 100 beginners dropping out of school at each age and at each grade; number of those leaving to enter school elsewhere; number leaving for other causes.
6. Per cent of those entering the first grade to complete the elementary-school course; the high-school course.
7. Per cent of those completing the elementary schools to enter high school.
8. Per cent of those entering high school to complete the course.
9. Per cent of high-school graduates who enter college. Kind of work done in college.
10. The age-grade distribution of all pupils for each school and for the entire system, from which can be determined facts about retardation and acceleration of pupils.
11. Attendance. Average daily attendance based on number belonging on school population; distribution showing number and per cent attending 1 to 10 days, 11 to 20, and so on.
12. What those who have graduated from high school within 4, 5, or 10 years are doing, those who have graduated from the grammar school, those who left the elementary grades without graduating, those who left high school without graduating.
13. Per cent of pupils who fail of promotion in each grade and in each subject.
14. Ability of pupils as determined by school grades, standard, tests, and mental tests.
15. Various cost items.
16. Preparation, experience, and other significant facts regarding teachers.
17. Significant facts regarding schools in other cities.

Statistical information, and information of nonstatistical character about the system necessary to this end, is secured in large school systems by a group of experts who give their whole time to compiling and interpreting such facts; in small systems the data should be collected by the superintendent through a carefully devised system of reports which he should require principals and teachers to file at stated intervals and which should be tabulated and made available by a clerk working under the direction of the superintendent.

A complete set of records should be installed in every school system. Samples of such records may be obtained from school publishing houses that make a specialty of publishing school record cards, bookkeeping blanks, and other material to assist superintendents in fiscal and child accounting.

Just how the information that a superintendent collects and compiles regarding his school system may be made available to the public is a problem that he must solve better than he has in the past. The published annual report is one means, but it is read by comparatively few people, often not even by the members of the school board. However, those few who do read the report are no doubt interested in the schools. Its publication may possibly be justified on the grounds that a few interested persons read the report. The facts regarding the school systems should, however, be preserved in some permanent form, as in a published report, for future reference and comparison. Then, too, the superintendent's published report is about the only method of conveying information regarding his schools to superintendents in other cities. The ex-

change of published reports is a real use, and in itself would justify their publication. The good report is of value to students in schools of education and to others making studies of school conditions throughout the country. If a superintendent of schools has published a report giving the essential facts about his school system, he can use it in replying to most of the inquiries from students and others making special studies.

At present, however, the great majority of the city school reports are useless either for the use of the school board, the public, or anyone else, in that they do not contain information showing what the schools have accomplished and what their needs are. Many of the reports contain nothing but a few items regarding attendance, list of high-school graduates, names of members of the board of education, and reports from the supervisors of special subjects. The financial report is usually given in totals and not in unit costs—in short, nothing that shows whether the schools are becoming more and more efficient, and if not why not.

The superintendent who would succeed in permanently improving his schools must in some way inform the public of their needs. As Dr. Cubberley says:²⁰

A policy of rapid expansion and increased expenditure is almost certain to end in disaster for the superintendent who is too busy making progress to take time to tell the people what he is doing and why. Sure and permanent progress is made only when the people understand what is being done, and the reasons for the increased cost. The people need to be stimulated by their school officials to a desire for progress, and inspired with confidence that those who represent them are trustworthy and efficient. Only upon such confidence and cooperation can the work of public education long proceed.

If the annual school report, however well prepared it may be, is not read by the public, some other means must be used to get the necessary information to the people. This can, no doubt, be best done through the columns of the city newspapers. The facts that the superintendent wishes presented should be carefully worked out and then written up under his direction. If the facts are given to a reporter to be written up, he should be requested to submit to the superintendent what has been written. Another means by which to inform the people regarding the schools is the mimeographed circular to be distributed among the parents. These circulars should consist of only a page or two, so that the busy parent will take the time to read them. Then in many other ways, easily discoverable, there may be kept up a constant process of dissemination of news about the schools; as through talks before the chamber of commerce and other civic bodies in matters pertaining to education, through exhibits of the pupils' work, which will increase the collective interest and pride of the parents; through posters displayed in store windows to set forth significant things about the schools.

To some superintendents this may seem like "advertising" themselves. It is, if they are selfishly thinking of themselves; but, if they are thinking of the schools, it is not advertising themselves but calling attention to what the schools are doing and what more they should do.

A school system will not make progress unless the people are informed on educational matters.

As Dr. Frank F. Bunker Wells says in the school survey report of Columbia, S. C.:²¹

A community thinks as individuals, and feels as individuals; but, when it acts, it acts in its corporate capacity. Before it acts as a corporate body the individuals constituting it must have thought to such purpose, and felt to such purpose, that a forceful minority at least have come to agreement. Then, and then only,

²⁰ Cubberley, E. P. *Public School Administration*, pp. 426-27.

²¹ U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1918, No. 28, pp. 27-29.

can the community in its corporate and legal capacity be expected to carry into execution the cherished proposal. Furthermore, a community, again in its corporate capacity, never acts until it is compelled to act, especially when it comes to increasing taxes, for its representatives have been told in ways unmistakably plain that increasing taxes is a grievous matter, almost indeed as much to be feared as committing the "unpardonable sin." The first and necessary step then, in any plan contemplating increasing the maintenance income of the schools, or indeed of any other group or municipal activity, is to enlist the active interest of individuals, as many in number, and so representative in character, that their demand will irresistibly impel the community, as a corporate body, to take the desired action.

It is a mistake to expect the men who chance at the moment to be the legal representatives of the community to take the desired action upon their own initiative. It is a mistake also to think that an appeal to them alone will suffice. They, as individuals, may be quite in accord with the proposal; but, unless they can be shown that the project has won the ear of the community and that the community desires the requested action, they as the community's trustees and spokesmen can not, neither could they, commit the community to the plan. A community therefore, and its representatives also, may appear to be indifferent to a given matter; whereas, in point of fact, those vitally concerned in it have not adopted the methods and taken the steps which are necessary to arouse the community to such interest that action will follow automatically and of necessity.

Responsibility for the initiative in matters pertaining to the schools ought, of course, to rest with the board of education, the superintendent of schools, the principals, and the teachers. They know most about the kind of service which the schools are giving to the community; they are the ones who know most about the present and the future needs; in fact, the community expects these officers and teachers to take the lead in informing it of the schools' work, of their needs, and to suggest concrete plans for meeting these needs.

It is not sufficient, therefore, if nothing more be done than for the board of education formally to request of the tax levying body an advance in rate. Those responsible must first present their case to the people who make up the community. When the people are convinced of the need, and are willing individually to be taxed to meet it, there will be no objection made when the matter is put up to the officials who fix the rate. The community in its corporate capacity will have spoken and action will inevitably follow.

The established method of winning the active attention of a community is that of publicity; and no opportunity for informing the people about their schools—their aims, their work, their cost, their problems—should ever be let go by. Through the columns of the local press, through bulletins issued on special phases of school work, through talks before civic bodies on matters pertaining to education, through exhibits of pupils' work which will arouse the collective interest and pride of the parents, through the medium of the parent-teachers' associations, and in many other ways easily discoverable, there can be kept up a constant process of dissemination of news about the schools. Furthermore, it must not be overlooked that the parents of the children who are in school are the people who make up the community group and who determine what tax-levying bodies shall do. It ought not to be a difficult matter to convince the parents of the educational needs of their own children, nor of the value of what the schools are doing, nor of the necessity for concerted action to secure relief.



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